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SURVEY OF SOCIAL TRENDS AND MAJOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS IN AFRICA

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INTRODUCTION

1. Social development, in terms of improvements in the living conditions of individuals and groups with respect to food, nutrition, health, employment, education, housing, family welfare and social security depends very largely on the economic and political context within which development takes place in a society. While economic growth may still be concerned with the attainment of concrete quantitative goals in the economic sphere, social development must be concerned with positive, qualitative changes in individual, group and institutional capacity to place the environment (material resources) at the service of man. This, among other things, implies a continuous search for the means of ensuring more harmonious and mutually beneficial interactions among the various units of society, greater social integration, equitable distribution and utilization of natural and manmade resources. Without these preconditions, there cannot be socio-economic progress.

2. This survey was undertaken by the ECA secretariat in co-operation with the African Centre for Applied Research and Training in Social Development (ACARTSOD). The objective of the survey is to assist the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs in its review and assessment of the African social situation. The study concentrates on the trends and major problems in the last three years, 1984-1986. However, in order to show more clearly the trends in the major areas of social development, and especially where up-to-date data are not available, the coverage has been extended to about 1981.

3. The survey is divided into five parts. Part I gives an overview of the present social situation. In Part II, changes in such key social indicators as food and nutrition, health, employment, family welfare and human resources development are examined. The issue of under-privilege especially as it relates to particular population groups like women, youth, the aging, refugee and displaced persons is discussed in Part III. Part IV highlights the requirements of developmental social welfare as a topical issue with which the Conference has to deal at its fifth session. Finally, the conclusion and recommendations of the study are given in Part V.

PART I OVERVIEW

4. The last five years have been marked by a general worsening of socio-economic conditions in Africa. Global recession, adverse terms of trade, natural disasters, civil wars and various types of political instability have clouded the socio-economic atmosphere. From 1980 to 1985, with only a few exceptions, the majority of African states experienced economic stagnation. The effect of recession in the developed market economies was most clearly evident in the poor growth performance of many countries in the region. For the period of 1981 to 1984 for which data are reported in Tables I and II*, there was negative growth in GDP, in Sub-Saharan Africa and only a modest growth in North Africa,

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* All tables are given in the Appendix.

5. It is likely that this worsening economic situation has had adverse effects on living conditions. Aggravated by drought and poor harvest conditions in many countries, the nutritional status of populations have further declined. Government allocations to such vital social services as health, education, housing, etc. are likely to have been affected. The situation is further aggravated by the continuing high rates of the growth of population (Table III).

6. Referring to declining per capita income, skewed patterns of income distribution, prevalence of destitution and poverty, growing unemployment and underemployment, hunger affecting approximately 150 million people, poor health conditions and the like, the fourth meeting of the Conferende of African Ministers of Social Affairs urged African governments, non-governmental and international organizations to take decisive steps to remedy the situation. These recommendations pertain to action in the areas of education, health, sanitation, water supply, housing, food production, employment and social security. The Ministers also made a series of recommendations concerning actions to be taken to promote general development. 1/

7. Since AMSA IV, most African Governments have not had the "breathing space" to implement most of the recommendations made. Natural calamities, requiring emergency measures, have preoccupied the attention of most governments. At the beginning of 1985, between 30 and 35 million people in 20 countries particularly were seriously at risk as a result of famine caused by drought, desertification and crop failures. They faced life-threatening hunger, malnutrition and disease. Thousands of people died before relief could reach them, despite the efforts of the governments and the international community which simply could not mobilize the needed resources in time. Almost 10 million people had to abandon their homes and their lands in search of food and water. 2/

8. Thus, social development policy, over the last two years, has been predominantly focussed on emergency needs of the continent in terms of food aid, health amenities, and shelter for displaced persons and famine victims.

9. At the international level, the establishment of the Office for Emergency Operations in Africa (OEOA) by the Secretary-General of the United Nations in January 1985 proved both timely and appropriate. The task of the OEOA was to assess, as precisely as possible, the needs of the affected countries. To this end, on 11 and 12 March 1985, an international Conference was convened in Geneva by the Secretary-General of the United Nations, on the emergency situation in Africa. At that time, the 1984-1985 emergency food and non-food relief needs of the 20 affected African countries were estimated at US$ 2.7 billion, and of these donors had already (prior to the Geneva Conference), pledged about US$ 1.1 billion in food aid. For 1984-1985, the total unmet emergency food and non-food needs presented to the donor community at Geneva, amounted to US$ 1.6 billion.3/

1/ ECA/OAU, Report of the Fourth Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 25-26 March 1985 (E/ECA/CM.11/46, ECA/OAU/AMSA. IV/Rpt).

2/ See United Nations Office for Emergency Operations in Africa (OEOA), Special Report on the Emergency Situation in Africa: Review of 1985 and 1986 Emergency Needs (New York, 1986).

3/ Ibid.

10. The subsequent deterioration of the situation required a further commitment of US$ 600 million, bringing the total aid needed to US$ 3.3 billion for 1984-85. The response of donors accelerated dramatically following the Geneva Conference, and a total of about US$ 2.9 billion was contributed during 1984-85. As of 1 December 1985, a shortfall in the amount of some US$ 358 million persisted including US$ 147 million of unmet food and US$ 211 million of unmet non-food requirements.

11. However positive the international response was to the emergency situation, long-term plans of development remained essential for avoiding future emergencies and dealing with the most persistent and debilitating aspects of the emergency. It was in consideration of this that four months after AMSA IV, the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) articulated the need to go beyond emergency and adopted Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery, 1986-1990 (APPER) at its Twenty-first Session in July 1985. The international community gave its support to APPER and showed its solidarity with Africa by adopting, in June 1986, at the thirteenth Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly, the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development, 1986-1990 (UN-PAAERD).

12. APPER urges African governments not only to cope more efficiently with current and future emergencies but to transcend these and tackle the root causes of the continent's socio-economic crisis. This entails a clear understanding of the structural problems confronting the countries and of the importance of policy reforms for long-term development. In this respect, APPER and the UN-PAAERD place high priority in the social field on efficient human resources development and utilization with particular reference to rural populations, women and youth. The two Programmes also re-emphasize the basic social principles of people's participation in development and equitable distribution of the fruits of such development.

13. Against this background, a particular challenge faces the African Ministers of Social Affairs. They need to re-examine critically the social policies as well as social welfare services in their countries with a view to their reform. Social welfare services and programmes in the region continue to place greater emphasis on the remedial and rehabilitative functions especially as these relate to disadvantaged and vulnerable groups in society. While these functions remain important, excessive emphasis on them has often led to the conception of social welfare as a non-productive and charitable activity and therefore deserving low priority in national development planning and resource allocation.

14. There is need to orient social welfare towards developmental activities. Developmental social welfare maximizes the human potential and social functioning of all individuals and groups in society and promotes self-reliance. However, in order to ensure the success of this approach to social welfare, certain measures such as the following are necessary: development of policies and programmes stressing the developmental functions of social welfare; increasing resource allocations for the implementation of such programmes; increasing the allocation of resources to research on the operationalization of the concept of developmental social welfare and establishing programmes of training to reorient social development workers. These new requirements have been highlighted as a special focus in the present survey.

PART II: ANALYSIS OF CHANGES IN SPECIFIC SOCIAL INDICATORS

(a) Food and Agriculture

15. A meaningful discussion of change in the social situation in Africa must, of necessity, begin with the food and agriculture situation. As recently as 1970, most of Africa was self-sufficient in food. However, agriculture and, in particular food production, did not receive the attention it deserved in development planning, policy and resource allocation. The result was a steady drop in food self-sufficiency ratios from the 1970s when population growth averaged 2.8 percent annually and food production increased only by 1 to 1.5 percent a year. As has been succintly analyzed by the African governments themselves, "the cummulative result is that today (1986) one out of every five Africans depends for his/her survival on food imports, about 25 percent of which is provided by food aid". 4/

16. Food is so vital to the social well-being of a people that no society should be so vulnerable in respect of this vital resource. The decline in food and agricultural production reflects three well-established trends: the fastest ever population growth of any continent, soil erosion and insufficient support to agriculture. A picture of the state of food production between 1980 and 1985 is depicted in Table IV.

17. 1985 and 1986 showed encouraging developments, thanks to improved rainfall. According to FAO, agricultural production rose by 4.2 percent overall in 1985 with exceptional growth in North Africa (10.2 percent) and in the Sahel (14.6 percent). Although a few countries like Botswana, Ethiopia and Mozambique still had areas of concern, the 20 drought-affected countries recorded a 2.8 percent growth in agricultural value added in their national accounts, following a fall of 6.6 percent in 1984. 5/ The situation in 1986 was even more positive. Agricultural output grew more than 3 percent; that is, at a rate slightly more than the population growth rate, a trend that had not been noticed in the region for more than a decade and a half. It was observed that "for some countries, the real problem in 1986 was how to dispose of exceptional food surpluses internally." 6/

18. But better agricultural performance in a single year or season should not lead to complacency. The structural problems within the food and agricultural sector are of major concern. There are countries which, in spite of the current improved conditions, will still need emergency food aid due to difficulties in

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4/ OAU/ECA, Africa's Submission to the Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly on Africa's Economic and Social Crisis (OAU/ECM/2XV/Rev.2, E/ECA/ECM.1/1/Rev.2), Addis Ababa, November 1986, p. 5.

5/ ECA/ADB, Economic Report on Africa 1986 (March 1986), p. 6.

6/ Adebayo Adedeji, "A Preliminar Assessment of the Performance of the African Economy in 1986 and Prospects for 1987", Addis Ababa, 2 January 1987, p. 2.

moving food from one area to another. Hence socio-economic conditions will not be better if transportation remains poor. Even where there is plenty of food, there is need for policies of distribution to ensure that the neediest have access to the food. Proper education is also needed for people to utilize the food in a way that would improve their nutritional status.

19. During 1985, there were indications of a growing policy shift in Africa towards providing more resources to agriculture and creating more favourable conditions for agricultural producers. Not only have producer prices been raised in an increasing number of countries; budget allocations have also been increased and more funds allocated under development plans and programmes. 7/ This is policy shift in the right direction.

20. In spite of the improved agricultural conditions in 1986, there is still no certainty that, in the event of another drought, African countries may not suffer another food shortage as was experienced in the 1980-84 period. This is why the long-term measures for improving agricultural production as envisaged in APPER and the 1978 Regional Food Plan for Africa (AFPLAN) must be given prompt attention and implemented.

21. In general, African agriculture is still characterized by low productivity, dominance by small holders without access to necessary modern factor inputs, urban bias regarding farm-gate prices for agricultural commodities, under-capitalization, a not too well organized peasantry, heavy reliance on rain to sustain production and lack of early warning systems to minimize the impact of crop failure and harvest disasters. With all the information now available on the conditions of agriculture and food production regimes, Africa now needs a steady shift towards scientific farming so as to sustain high agricultural productivity and adequate food production.

22. The food situation in individual countries is compounded by several problems. For the purpose of analysis of choices of national policies and programmes, FAO has identified six broad categories of food problems to be taken into consideration:

(a) resource limitations;

(b) subsistence-oriented production systems;

(c) increasing demand for preferred foods;

(d) dietary deficiency;

(e) localized poverty and deficient diets associated with unequal income distribution;

(f) production instability due to weather variations.

7/ ECA, Survey of Economic and Social Conditions in Africa, 1984-1985 (E/ECA/CM.12/5), p. 40ff.

23. Decisive social policies are needed to deal with problems like import-based food consumption patterns, dietary deficiency and income disparities. In dealing with problems of dietary deficiency, for example, it must be noted that the nutritional status of a population is closely related to national levels of economic development, patterns of societal inequalities and the incidence of poverty. Recent FAO reports on undernourishment 2/ based on evidence from Sierra Leone, Ghana, Liberia, Togo and Tanzania all indicate a higher incidence of malnutrition in rural areas now than ever before. The evidence of mortality related to malnutrition also shows worsening deprivation in the rural population. Demographic surveys in a number of countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, Benin, Gabon and Cameroon all show rural mortality rates consistently higher than urban rates. The reports infer that a similar situation is likely to be the case in other sub-Saharan countries.

(b) Health, Nutrition, Water and Sanitation

Health

24. The African Ministers of Social Affairs at their fourth meeting discussed health problems in Africa focussing attention on vital issues such as the distribution of health and medical resources and the desirability of expediting the Primary Health Care (PHC) approach in the solution of health problems in the region. Over the last two years, there have not been qualitative changes with regard to what was observed then. In general, health facilities are still largely concentrated in urban areas. The larger part of the rural population has only limited access to health care. Nonetheless, variations exist among countries regarding the extent to which health facilities are available in both rural and urban areas.

25. It is almost impossible for many African countries to cope with the health requirements of their populations through modern medical facilities, because of their expensive nature. Primary health care which relies on non-physician, para-medical staff with shorter and less expensive training, makes it possible for more medical and health personnel as well as services to become available to all sectors of the population. It is also likely to help in reducing the physical and social distance between the people and their medical services, because of its community-based nature. However, as was observed in the report of AMSA IV, balance must be maintained between central surveillance of the PHC system and local control, to encourage grassroots support and participation.

(i) Expenditure on Health

26. Incomplete data do not permit any statement concerning the effect the general crisis and the drought had on the volume of government revenue. It is likely that current revenue was adversely affected by the combined forces of adverse global economic situations and lowered economic activity at home because of drought and related problems. ECA estimates that current revenue as

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2/ FAO, Food Outlook, various issues, nos. 2-10 (March-November 1986). The measurement used is a basal metabolic rate (BMR) of 1.2 per person which is approximately equivalent to 1 500 calories per day. A daily intake below this minimum means malnutrition.

percentage of GDP declined from 25.2 percent in 1983 to 24.2 percent in 1984 and remained almost at this level through 1985 9/. The overall situation in 1986 showed a stagnation in the ratio of revenues to GDP. 10/

27. It can be reasonably surmized that at least countries affected by drought may have experienced lower revenue collecting opportunity and therefore reduced expenditures. In general, in times of budgetary crisis allocations to social services are the primary targets for reduced spending. However, available data do not permit the making of any statement concerning the relationship between levels of revenue and resource allocations to the health services in the period under review. Considering only the countries with data reported in Table V, 21 out of 24 or 88.0 percent of the countries have indicated that they allocated less than 5.0 percent of GNP for health services.

(ii) Health Care Coverage

28. Data on expenditure should be examined together with data pertaining to health care coverage (see Table VI). With only 53 percent of the countries responding, 6 countries reported less than 40.0 percent coverage as of 1985. Nineteen countries or 76.0 percent of those responding reported over 40.0 percent coverage while 12 or 48.0 percent of those responding reported a coverage of between 60.0 percent and 80.0 percent. The persisting structural imbalances, especially between the urban and rural sectors, have to be taken into consideration in evaluating the data on coverage.

(iii) Immunization

29. The World Health Organization's Expanded Programme of Immunization (EPI) is intended to protect children, particularly infants, against 6 major disabling or killer diseases. These are diptheria, pertusis, titanus, polio-myelitis, measles and tuberculosis. African countries which have adopted the primary health care system have accepted immunization against these diseases as an important aspect of the system. In 1985, the African Ministers of Health meeting under the Regional Committee of WHO declared 1986 as African Immunization Year to draw greater attention to EPI.

30. The data reported in Table VII give a picture of the progress made in respect to immunization up to 1985. Approximately 59 percent of the countries which responded, reported that less than 50.0 percent of children in the age group 0-1 were fully immunized against the 6 killer diseases. Seven of the countries or 41.0 percent reported over 50.0 percent of infants immunized against all EPI diseases. The regional goal of EPI is to attain a 75.0 percent coverage by the year 1990. Whether this goal will be attained by the stated time depends upon the willingness of governments to prepare and deploy the necessary trained manpower, the provision of reliable logistical support and working with local

9/ ECA, Survey of Economic and Social Conditions in Africa, 1983-1984 (E/ECA/C..11/16), p. 92 ff.

10/ Adedeji, "Preliminary Assessment", p. 11.

communities so as to elicit their support for the programme and their full participation in its implementation. From the data in Table VII, it can only be presumed for all practical purposes that only about 25.0 percent of the infant population has been fully immunized against the six major childhood diseases.

31. In attempting to explain the low rate of immunization after literally decades of health education, two possible explanations suggest themselves. The first is resistance originating in culture and belief systems and the second is distance as a barrier to effective utilization of available services. Regardless of the reasons, there is a great deal more to be done in terms of motivating people to use services and making this relatively easier by providing mobile immunization services to cover isolated communities.

32. An important dimension of the immunization programme spearheaded by both WHO and UNICEF is the immunization of expectant mothers against titanus (see Table VIII). The number of women living in localities where 50.0 percent pregnant women were immunized against titanus is 1,222,360. This represents 32.0 percent of the total immunized by 1985. Since no assumptions can be made about the population for which data were not reported, the analysis of the situation is limited to those countries for which data were reported. While it is likely that some activities may have been going on in respect to the various various types of PHC programmes, no determination can be made of the magnitude and scope of such activities.

Nutrition

33. One of the most fundamental requirements in promoting health is nutrition. In Africa problems of malnutrition, especially protein malnutrition in children, are compounded by poverty, ignorance and periodic food shortages in recent years. Lack of information about the nutritional value of food and the importance of balanced and adequate diet, coupled with certain traditional eating habits, can affect even those who can afford nutritional foods. The most affected are children and, in most cases, people are not aware of their own poor nutritional status and that of their children. Africa's critical economic situation makes it imperative for makers of social policy to be vigilant about the nutrition of the population whose learning ability and capacity to work could otherwise be impaired.

34. An urgent aspect of nutritional and health needs in Africa is to be found in disaster situations. Vaccines, antibiotics, water pumps, tents, blankets and even clothes are amongst the items that people in these situations need to survive and to maintain the little health they still have. However, there are misconceptions by policy-makers and international donors of the real nature of famine in drought-striken areas and areas of food shortages which can frustrate solutions. In general people think that famine is primarily a food issue; once food is delivered, the starving population is expected to be well. The reality is that malnutrition and illness feed upon each other in a symbiotic cycle. Malnourished people are much more likely to fall prey to infections, and much less able to recover from them. The experiences of 1985 show that concomitant health interventions are critical if one wants to save those one is trying to feed. Food clearly is the most important necessity in a famine, but its impact is not nearly as great unless combined with immunization, sanitation, clean

water supply and other preventive measures, as well as the provision of drugs and other remedial interventions. 11/

Water supply

35. Availability of clean and drinkable water is critical to health. The availability of wholesome water for Africa's population is becoming critical, even in the big cities with modern facilities. Only one in four persons has access to clean water in the Africa region. In the urban areas, population growth has outstripped the ability of the cities to supply sufficient water, or maintain existing services for the urban population. In a study conducted in 1985 by the World Health Organization on "Population Coverage with Safe Water" within the WHO regions, of the 140 countries which provided information, 61 reported that 80 percent or more of their population have safe drinking water. Of the 39 African countries which responded, only 2 reported that 80 percent or more of their population have safe drinking water. The majority of the African respondents, i.e. 33 out of 39 countries, reported that 20-60 percent of their population have access to safe drinking water. 12/

36. Taking both rural and urban areas together, one country reported that less than 10.0 percent of the population of 32.16 million has access to safe water within the home or within 15 minutes walking distance (Table IX). Twenty eight countries with an estimated population of 274,134,500 reported less than 50.0 percent coverage. Nine countries involving 57,372,582 people reported a coverage of 50 percent or more. On the whole, 17.3 percent of the population for which countries reported data fall within the broad category of 50-99 percent coverage. The vast majority or 82.7 percent fall within the range 0-49 percent coverage.

37. The rural-urban difference is remarkable. Out of a total rural population of 217,862,592 for whom data were reported by 30 countries approximately, 61.0 percent lived in localities where accessibility to safe water was limited to less than 20.0 percent of total populations. Only 5.2 percent of this total lived in localities with safe water access rate of 50.0 percent or more.

Sanitary facilities

38. As with water, the extent to which people are in the habit of using protected sanitary facilities is critical in the war against communicable diseases. Without taking the rural-urban dichotomy into account, the WHO evaluation of 1985 showed that 50,542,611 people lived in localities where less than 50.0 percent of the population had easy access to sanitary facilities. Nearly 26 million of these lived in localities where less than 20.0 percent of the population had access to protected sanitary facilities (see Table X).

39. There was a marked difference between rural and urban types of residence in so far as sanitary facilities are concerned. Out of a total rural population of 74,437,238 for which data were reported 49,822,085 or 67.0 percent lived in

11/ See, Salim Lone, "Crisis in Health Needs", Africa Emergency No. 2, (June 1985), p. 11.

12/ WHO, Evaluation of the Strategy for Health for All by the Year 2000: Seventh Report of the World Health Situation (February 1986), pp. 34-35.

communities where less than 50.0 percent of the population had easy access to sanitary facilities. Out of 14,630,833 inhabitants in urban localities, 5,313,573 or 36.0 percent lived in localities where less than 50.0 percent of the population had access to adequate sanitary facilities.

(c) Shelter and Human Settlements

40. With rapidly growing populations, a general increase in the number and sizes of urban settlements, and a greater demand for better planned dwelling areas so as to avoid outbreaks of vector-borne diseases, shelter and human settlements need to be paid particular attention in policy-making and development planning. At their fourth meeting, the African Ministers of Social Affairs recommended that comprehensive housing policies be developed at the national level which would guide the national development of cities and urban areas. This should include urban land-use policy, financing of housing projects, production of building materials, etc.

41. Since AMSA IV, the Joint Intergovernmental Regional Committee on Human Settlements and Environment held its third session in Addis Ababa, from 22 to 26 July 1985, and reviewed the human settlements situation in Africa from the stand point of:

(a) analyzing and appraising human settlement policy in Africa with regard, particularly, to the land problem in urban areas and housing programmes for the masses;

(b) developing decentralized systems of building materials production in African countries;

(c) establishing indicators for revised building codes and regulations;

(d) establishing guidelines for the development and strengthening of co-operative and self-help housing schemes. 13/

42. The review resulted in the following recommendations:

(a) Governments should concentrate attention on:

(i) urban land-use policy including site development;

(ii) housing credit policy;

(iii) stabilization of urban land prices;

(iv) promotion and use of locally available construction materials in order to use lower housing costs; and

(v) comprehensive regional planning and development to arrest the rural-urban drift.

13/ See Report of the Third Meeting of the ECA Joint Intergovernmental Committee on Human Settlements and Environment, Addis Ababa, 22-26 July 1985 (E/ECA/HUS/ENV/3).

(b) Establishment of regional or subregional data banks concerning housing and the creation of appropriate mechanisms for the exchange of information.

43. Some countries have already started taking concrete measures towards the implementation of the recommendations of the Joint Intergovernmental Committee on Human Settlements and Environment. Also, the proclamation by the United Nations of 1987 as the International Year of Shelter for the Homeless (IYSH) has given an additional impetus for action. The Government of Zimbabwe, for example, has established the Zimbabwe Co-ordinating Committee on Human Settlements (ZCCHS) which is charged with the responsibility of planning, implementing and co-ordinating the IYSH. The activities of the ZCCHS include a survey of housing needs and an assessment of how to meet such needs between 1985 and the year 2000. Similar activities have been initiated in Kenya, Zambia, Benin, Botswana, Tanzania, Nigeria and Ethiopia.

(d) Environment

44. Priority concerns expressed in the Lagos Plan of Action (LPA) concerning environment focused attention on desertification, soil erosion, conservation of marine resources, conservation and rational utilization of mineral resources and the protection of the atmosphere from man-made pollutants. These concerns have been reiterated in APPER which makes drought and desertification one of its four priority areas. Although some attempts are being made by member States to implement the recommendations pertaining to the protection of the environment positive results are rather scant. Quick results cannot be expected because programmes of environmental protection and rehabilitation are characterized by long periods of gestation. But the effort must be kept up with considerably more resolve because of the serious danger that increasing desertification and deteriorating environment pose to the development of society.

45. Among the concrete steps taken since the LPA and APPER to combat the effects of drought and to better control factors leading to drought is the creation of the Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Development (IGADD) in early 1986. This is an experiment that has the potential of proving that through horizontal co-operation, countries can pool resources together to deal with problems of development in the spirit of collective self-reliance. In December 1985, a Conference of African Ministers responsible for the Environment was held in Cairo, which drew up action-oriented programmes supported by relevant project proposals and activities on the environment in Africa. The proposal to establish an African Centre for Meteorological Applications for Development (ACMAD) would, if realized, provide means for institutionalizing follow-up actions on the development of environmental protection. Since 1984, both ECA and UNEP have also been pursuing projects to incorporate environmental components into the training programmes of ECA-sponsored institutions such as IDEP and ESAMI with a view to sensitizing officials and planners in all fields to the requirements of environmental protection and the need to understand the social behaviour related to it.

(e) Family Welfare

46. The concept of family presents serious problems of definition and so far very little attempt has been made to resolve them. Family welfare became a recognized field of social work practice because of the realization of the need

to look at the issue of societal well-being at various levels of aggregation (family, community, society, etc.). Hence the family came to be recognized as the lowest level of aggregation at which collective intervention is deemed to be necessary, where societal dysfunctions are to be corrected and new approaches adopted to make society and its units effectively responsive to change and dynamic situations.

47. Welfare implies relative freedom from wants and problems affecting the life of social aggregates. Access to vital resources such as food, clothing, shelter, satisfying interpersonal relations, opportunities for self actualization, jobs, health, education, leisure, etc. represent some of the major determinants of welfare. Success of failure in the effort to promote family welfare is to be measured in terms of the extent to which families have access to these vital resources. In view of the fact that the Africa region, by and large, has been plagued by economic crises during the most part of the period under review, it is not likely that the level of family welfare has improved. In fact, it is rather likely that in many countries in the region, the level of family welfare has gone down.

48. The current situation concerning family welfare may be assessed by using a few suggestive indicators such as maternal mortality rates, infant mortality rates, fertility measures, contraceptive usage, access to water supply, access to sanitary facilities and nutritional status. Problems of nutrition, access to safe water supply, sanitary facilities and shelter and human settlements have already been discussed. Employment-related problems and education are discussed in this part of the survey.

49. From Table XII, it is clear that health conditions and the pressure of life on African women is such that these conditions manifest themselves in excessively high maternal morbidity and mortality rates. A comparison of the African region with other major regions of the world shows that the majority of African countries also report infant mortality rates of 100 or more (Table XIII). Out of 43 countries for which data are reported, 32 or 74.4 percent have infant mortality rates of 100 per thousand live births or more. This compares unfavourably with the Americas (8.8 percent), South East Asia (36.4 percent) and Europe (9.4 percent).

50. It is probable that unregulated fertility is one of the aggravating factors in the highly unfavourable conditions in maternal and child health in the Africa region. In Table XIV, data on contraceptive use are reported for the major regions of the world. Other things being equal, there is a fairly strong inverse relationship between contraceptive usage and the total fertility rate. 14/ Total fertifility rates are reported for the major regions of the world in Table XV. A comparison of the data in Tables XIV and XV clearly show the association between contraceptive usage and total fertility rates. Comparing these two sets of data with those concerning maternal and infant death clearly reveals the impact of unregulated fertility on family welfare. It should therefore be of interest to those responsible for the formulation of public policy for the advancement of family welfare to consider the impact of such conditions described above on family stability which is one of the fundamental prerequisites of social development.

14/ The total fertility rate is the average number of children a woman will have during her entire reproductive career under a given schedule of age specific fertility rates.

(f) Social Security

51. The primary purpose of social security programmes in Africa is to give members of the labour force in the urban formal sector some measures of protection against risks associated with the work environment. Because of economic realities the type of risks covered were, and continue to be, limited to such major ones as maternity, work-injury and death. Some countries like Egypt, Ghana, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Nigeria and Tanzania provide unemployment benefits, according to a 1983 survey by ACARTSCD. 15/ According to the same survey some kind of family allowance is available in 23 out of 42 countries surveyed and the majority of these are from the French-speaking group of countries. Protection against work injury is available in all 42 countries surveyed.

52. There is some variation in the methods of financing social security programmes. In the ACARTSCD survey, it is reported that 34 countries out of 42 countries have contributory schemes to cover invalidity, retirement and death benefits. Survivors' benefits are paid to widows, in some cases widowers, and other dependents designated by the insured.

53. In general social security in the African region has not developed to a point where the population as a whole is protected against major risks. Gabon and Libya appear to be the only exceptions. The majority of the work force is out of reach of the formal social security system, because no system is yet developed to cover the vast non-formal sector. The task in the years ahead should then be to investigate alternative and appropriate mechanisms for extending coverage to as many in this sector as resources and institutional capacity will permit.

(g) Human Resources Development and Utilization

54. The subject of human resources development and utilzation has been given an important place in the strategies of general development enunciated in the LPA and the Final Act of Lagos. It has been re-emphasized in APPER where it is cited as one of the four immediate priorities. Among the factors considered relevant to the understanding of the issue of the development and utilization of human resources are: rapid population growth, the prevailing high rates of unemployment and underemployment, high illiteracy rates among adults, and the lack of congruence between educational policy and manpower needs for development.

55. Considerable efforts have been made in the last decade and half to expand the formal educational infrastructure and also at the same time reduce illiteracy rates among adult populations. Enrollment at the first, second and third level educational institutions have increased more dramatically in some countries but less so in others. But on the whole, there has been a considerable upsurge in enrollment at all levels of education. Female participation rates have also increased significantly in recent decades and this is likely to continue with an accelerated rate in response to the near global consensus that has emerged concerning the new role of women in social, economic and political life.

15/ ACARTSCD, Social Security Systems in Africa, Research series No. 2 (1985).

Formal Education

56. First, second and third level enrollment data indicate that at least moderate gains have been made between the period 1983-84 and 1984-85 (see Table XVI). However, as a 1982 ILO study on education and employment in Africa pointed out, 16/ as the number of graduates at a given level increases to the point of unmanageability by labour markets, the pressure for higher paper qualifications increases. Such problems complicate the problem faced by the region in respect to the development and rational utilization of human resources.

(i) Primary School Enrollment

57. It appears from the data in Table XVI that nearly all subregions did well in terms of extending opportunities for primary education. In that Table, data for two periods t1 and t2 are compared. Improvements occurred in Central Africa, North Africa and West Africa and while a decline was recorded in Eastern Africa. However, since some countries did not report data for t1 it is difficult to say whether the figures reported for t2 represented higher or lower values. It is interesting to note that a number of countries, for example, Cameroon, Congo, Botswana, Comoros, Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritius, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Libya, Tunisia and Togo reported primary school enrollment ratios of over 100. This is not surprising because within the framework of stepped up efforts to universalize primary education, persons from age groups older than those considered appropriate for primary education are likely to have been included in an effort to clear the backlog.

(ii) Secondary School Enrollment

58. Comparing subregions as aggregate units, it would appear that the secondary school enrollment ratio in Central Africa was lower in 1983 than in the previous period, with enrollment of 18 percent at t1 and 14 percent at t2 (1983). But the evidence is not conclusive since increases were recorded for many sub-units in the subregion. In Eastern Africa, an improvement in secondary school enrollment was reported for the subregion as an aggregate unit. Declines were reported for 3 countries and no change for 4 countries. But the gains in Zimbabwe were considerable (23 percent at t1 and 39 percent at t2). It is therefore likely that such gains may have compensated for the negative growth in some and the absence of change in others. North Africa as an aggregate unit registered positive growth and similar development was observed for the sub-units as well, except in the case of the Sudan where no change was reported. Negative growth was reported for West Africa as an aggregate unit. Eight of the sub-units reported positive growth, nine negative and three no change.

(iii) Third Level Education

59. It must be observed at the outset that third level enrollment ratios for all subregions except for North Africa were exceedingly low. In all the sub-regions, modest growth has been recorded except for West Africa where no growth was reported.

16/ ILO/JASPA, The Paper Qualification Syndrome and Unemployment of School Leavers: A Comparative Subregional Study (Addis Ababa, 1982).

Literacy

60. The ability to read, write and do basic computations is a very fundamental package of education people must have in order for them to be able to function reasonably in modern society. Literacy is instrumental in increasing information receiving, absorption and using capacity of individuals. In many countries, the goal of universal literacy is being sought, more vigorously in some but less so in others. In Table XVII data are reported for 50 countries divided into 4 subregions. The availability of data for the years 1980 and 1985 permits at least a tentative statement on trends during the first half of the decade of the 1980s.

61. Comparing the subregions, it was found that aggregate literacy rates for Central Africa were 45.0 percent in 1980 and 51.5 percent in 1985 representing an annual growth rate of 2.9 percent. The Eastern African subregion as an aggregate unit had literacy rates of 52.9 percent in 1980 and 58.6 percent in 1985 representing an annual growth rate of 2.6 percent. In North Africa, literacy rates changed from 37.0 percent in 1980 to 42.4 percent in 1985. This represents an average annual growth rate of 2.6 percent. The lowest recorded literacy rates were for West Africa with 27.0 percent in 1980 and 37.6 percent in 1985 representing an annual growth rate of 7.0 percent.

62. The overall picture is such that the majority of the African population is still illiterate. This raises the question of the equitable distribution of social development opportunities. Moreover, since the purpose of promoting universal literacy is the improvement of the information absorption capacity, the slow rate of improvement in this important dimension of human resources development has serious implications for the region's priority programme for economic recovery. Thus, if the short- and medium-term goals of APPER are to be realized by 1990, more attention should be paid to this and other factors effecting the quality and performance of available human resources.

(h) Employment and its structural characteristics

63. A discussion of employment and labour force participation must start with assumptions about when, in African societies, persons are presumed to start being economically active. There are a variety of views concerning this issue. In this region, there are those who think that in African societies economic activity, particularly for boys, starts as early as the age 7. It is argued that it is the age at which children begin to assist their parents in the home and in the farm in various kinds of routines such as tending domestic animals, running errands, fetching water and firewood and learning agricultural and associated skills through informal apprenticeship. Although not explicitly stated, it is implied that such activities make some contribution to the production of goods and services. Another school of thought holds to the view that the international consensus which places 15 as the age of entry into the labour provides a practical cut off point.

64. For practical reasons, this survey uses the second assumption. The size of the active population relative to total population is a reflection of the age structure of the total population. Mathematically, this quantity is the difference between total population on the one hand and the population outside the labour force by reasons of age on the other. In developed economies where

the population age structure is relatively old, the percentage of population under the age of 15 is usually around 25.0 percent of total population and the active population at around 60.0 percent of total population. It is instructive to contrast this with the proportion of total population in Africa that is active which is around 50.0 percent, as can be seen from the data reported in Table XVIII. It is instructive because the burden of dependency is different in the two scenarios. The higher the proportion of total population that is active, the lower the age dependency burden, the greater the prospects for surplus production and the greater the per capita share of individuals in goods and services generated in society.

65. Looking at the data in Table XVIII, there are hardly any differences among the subregions and among countries within subregions in respect to the size of the active population relative to total population at both points in time, namely, 1965 and 1983. Central Africa's active population was 53.5 percent and 51.8 percent, respectively of the total population; Eastern Africa's was 52.6 percent and 51.5 percent of the total population; North Africa's was 52.8 percent and 53.8 percent and West Africa's was 52.6 percent and 50.6 percent. The slow rate of change in the relative size of the active population over the period of eighteen years between 1965 and 1983 is indicative of the fact that the young age structure persisted over the period. In fact, with a few exceptions such as Tunisia and Egypt, the age structure is becoming even younger. This is a consequence of a persistently high fertility rate. 17/

Sectoral Distribution of the Labour Force

66. It is often said that agriculture is the mainstay of African economies and this is borne out by the data in Table XIX. 18/ The sectoral distribution of the labour force is one of the indicators used in measuring the degree of structural differentiation of the economy. The data reported in Table XIX go slightly beyond the agricultural-non-agricultural or the traditional-modern dichotomies. However, the classifications used outside the agricultural sector must be read with caution. Under industry may be subsumed activities associated with traditional and semi-traditional artisanal trades and crafts. It is likely that given the low level of industrialization in Africa, these trades and crafts may constitute the bulk of movement and activities labeled as "industrial". Similar cautions should be exercised in looking at what is known as the services sector. It must be assumed that under this rather amorphous sector are subsumed the civil service, the armed forces, domestic service, small-scale retail trade, etc., which are dominant features in African non-agricultural employment.

17/ The average annual growth rates indicated in column 3 of Table XVIII taken at their face value tend to be misleading. Since the general population grows at a much faster rate than the labour force, the growth rates indicated have little or no impact on the age structure and the age dependency burden.

18/ More recent data for all the subregions were difficult to get for this survey. These data up to 1980 are used to show the trends which may be continuing to the present.

67. In terms of the degree of structural differentiation of the economy, Eastern Africa was the least differentiated in 1960 as indicated by the heavy concentration of the active population in agriculture (88.0 percent). This went down to 79.0 percent in 1980. In 1960, the proportion of total labour force in industry was 5.0 percent and this went up to 8.0 percent in 1980. Services went up from 8.0 percent in 1960 to 13.0 percent in 1980.

68. Agriculture's share of total labour force in Central Africa was 85.0 percent in 1960 and this went down to 78.0 percent in 1980. From 7.0 percent in 1960, industrial labour force as percentage of total labour force went up to 10.0 percent. As would be expected, very modest changes were recorded in the size of the labour force in the services sector. In 1960, the proportion of total labour force in the services sector was 8.0 percent and this went up to 12.0 percent in 1980.

69. Agriculture's share of total labour force in West Africa in 1960 was 76.0 percent and this went down to 62.0 percent in 1980 which is a rather steep decline by African standards. But this is by no means to be regarded as an indication of rapid structural transformation of the subregion's economy. Industry's share of total labour force remained constant at 8.0 percent in 1960 and in 1980. The services sector increased moderately from 15.0 percent in 1960 to 22.0 percent in 1980.

70. North Africa appears to have the most structurally differentiated economy of all the subregions. The proportion of total labour force in agriculture was 66.0 percent in 1960 and 50.0 percent in 1980. Industry's share went up from 11.0 percent in 1960 to 23.0 percent in 1980. In terms of employment absorption capacity, the services sector played important roles in both 1960 and 1980 with 23.0 percent and 27.0 percent respectively, reflecting in a sense, the dominance of the state bureaucracy, the armed forces and those activities such as retail trade, family-owned production units that are generally classified under the informal sector.

71. From the comparison of the subregions, it is evident that in the Central, Eastern and West African subregions, agriculture continues to be the major source of employment. The exception is North Africa where, in addition to agriculture, the services sector also served as an important source of employment. Usually, these are the sectors where productivity is relatively low by reasons of inadequate use of appropriate technology and low access to modern factor inputs. For the same reason agriculture and the services sectors are likely to be characterized by high rates of underemployment. These are areas of the economy where rationalization of production systems is called for as part of the effort for the attainment of the goals of the LPA and APPER. These are also areas in the African economies that represent inadequately tapped potentials for greater productivity and greater employment absorption capacity.

PART III ANALYSIS OF THE ISSUE OF UNDERPRIVILEGE AND THE SITUATION OF PARTICULAR POPULATION GROUPS

72. In this section of the survey, the issue of underprivilege is examined especially with respect to particular population groups in African society today requiring special attention. These include the youth, women, disabled, aging, migrants, refugees and displaced persons. The needs of these population groups constitute a major challenge for social development in the region especially in the times of crisis and periods of recovery and adjustment.

Youth

73. The size of the youth population in Africa can only be indirectly estimated because of lack of data. But their preponderence in the region can be inferred from the fact that the median age of the region's population is between 16 and 19 years. 19/ It is not only from the point of view of size that youth deserve serious attention but also because it represents an inadequately tapped reservoir of human resources. Because educational opportunities at the secondary level are limited in scope and because the labour absorption capacities of many African economies are limtied, a large proportion of youth are either unemployed or are in jobs which offer little in the way of satisfying and rewarding experience.

74. A report on youth unemployment in Africa 20/ reveals that in 1982 in Mauritius, among unemployed males 15 years and over approximately 66.0 percent were 15 to 24 years old, and of the female unemployed 50.4 percent were 15 to 24 years old. In Ghana, of all the unemployed males in 1982, 38.0 percent were in the age group 20-24; of the female unemployed 37.9 percent belonged to this age group. These are but a few examples of the general situation of the problem of youth unemployment in the region.

75. In the section on the sectoral distribution of the labour force in Part II, it was seen that the majority of the African labour force is concentrated in the agricultural sector. Given the young age structure of the population youth is likely to represent a sizeable proportion of that labour force. The major features of African agriculture are high man/land ratio, high labour/capital ratio, low integration with the market economy and, in general, low productivity. Because of these characteristics, the rate of underemployment is likely to be high making it practically difficult for youth to make a vocation out of agriculture. It is generally known that the majority of those involved in the massive rural to urban exodus are youth. By the same token those who swell the ranks of the urban unemployed and the underemployed are also youth.

76. Although recent data have not been reported it is clear that drop-out rates at various levels of formal education are high with the result that those who drop out prematurely swell the ranks of the urban unemployed contributing to the problems of urban deviance such as delinquency, drug abuse and prostitution. This represents a terrible waste in human resources and failure to do something about it is likely to pose a serious threat to the region's future. Anomic behaviour

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19/ UNFPA, Population Facts and Figures 1980.

20/ Seyoum G. Selassie, Situational Enquiries into the Problems of Youth Employment in Africa, ACARTSOP Research Series (forthcoming).

in the population in general and among the youth in particular not only impedes participatory development but also gives rise to intense social conflict undermining the stability needed for the pursuit of the medium term goals of the priority programmes for economic recovery and the long-term goals of sustained development. If the goals elaborated in the Lagos Plan of Action, APPER and the UN-PAAERD are to be attained, the thousands of youth currently floating in the social economic and political no man's land must be mobilized through:

(a) the encouragement of entrepreneurial activity among the youth in agriculture, industry and services;

(b) creation of networks of technical training institutions to train the youth in various technical and managerial skills;

(c) restructuring existing formal educational institutions, particularly at the primary and secondary levels, so that subject offerings designed to develop in the student creative thinking, the desire for experimentation in his/her own environment and specific problem-solving approaches permeate curricula.

Women

77. The determinants and consequences of the marginalization of women in many parts of the world and the African region in particular and measures to be taken to deal with them have been discussed over the years. Machineries have been established at the national, subregional and regional levels in Africa to more vigorously pursue the goals of integrating women in mainstream economic, social and political activities. A regional review and assessment in 1984 of the balance sheet of actions taken in the region since the first World Conference in Mexico City in 1975, showed that there was still much more to be done in the decade ahead to more fully realize the goals set in Mexico. 21/

78. As President Julius Nyerere observed in his opening address to the 1984 Regional Conference on Women and Development, "the problem of women's development in Africa is... inextricably bound up with the problem of African poverty. And it cannot be solved outside the attack on that poverty." 22/ The inequalities faced by the majority of African women are rooted in ideological and attitudinal biases, modes and relations of production which assign women to burdensome tasks which adversely affect their cultural, intellectual and social development, and approaches to human resources development and utilization which relegate women to limited productive skills and factor inputs. Many African women who suffer from these conditions are poor heads of households, often with many children, or women married to men in the lowest income bracket who are unable to feed their families without the help of their wives.

21/ ECA/OAU, Report of the Regional Intergovernmental Preparatory Meeting for the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace/Third Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development, Arusha, United Republic of Tanzania, 8-12 October 1984 (E/ECA/PCIWD/OAU/14).

22/ ECA/OAU, The Arusha Strategies for the Advancement of Women in Africa beyond the End of the United Nations Decade for Women (June 1985). Introduction by President Julius Nyerere, p. 2.

79. Most African countries have now adopted policies and programmes to positively change the status of women in the development process. However, it is noticeable that the more significant changes have occurred with respect to women in the formal sector, the public and civil service and the professions. Greater efforts are required to remove the barriers against poor rural, urban and peri-urban women for whom development would mean genuine poverty alleviation and equity. The Arusha Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of African Women 23/ adopted by African Governments in 1984 laid particular emphasis on the need to assist such poor women. In particular it recommended education (formal and non-formal) and the provision of agricultural extension services and credit to women in the agricultural sector with a view to improving their productivity, income-generating capacity and control over the income they earn.

80. With respect to the formal sector, three useful indicators permit an assessment of the extent to which the goal of demarginalization of women is being achieved. These are the proportion of females in second and third level education, the proportion of females in the formal labour force and the occupational distribution of the female labour force in the non-agriculture sector.

81. Clearly considerable progress has been made in improving female access to educational opportunities. This progress is reflected not only in increases in the female share in total enrollment at the primary and secondary levels but also in the increases in female participation rates. But this must, essentially, be seen as a means of the attainment of higher goals, namely, the extent to which improvement in educational opportunity leads to improved opportunities in the labour market. Female labour force participation rate is, therefore, a decisive indicator of the extent to which females are being integrated in mainstream activities, particularly in the modern dynamic sectors of the economy.

82. Recent data on such matters are not readily available to permit a comparative analysis of the patterns of change in the share of females in the modern employment market in all countries. However, the data reported in Table XX give some broad indication about possible changes that may have taken place in recent years. Table XX shows that the share of females in modern employment was very low at the threshold of the 1980s. Given the slow rate at which development generally takes place in the Africa region, it is not reasonable to expect that things have changed for the better significantly since then. It is rather likely that the situation may have gotten worse, particularly in countries severely affected by the current crisis.

The crisis

83. Inspite of the environmental and economic crises that beleaguered the Africa region since the early 1970s, some gains in the mortality situation have been recorded in the first half of the 1980s. For the period 1975-1980 the crude death rate was estimated at 18.7 per thousand of population and for the period 1980-85 the estimate was 17.2 per thousand population.24/ Still the majority of the countries in the region have estimated life expectancy at birth of 50

23/ Ibid.

24/ WHO, Evaluation of the Strategy for Health for All by the Year 2000: Seventh Report of the World Health Situation (February 1986), Table 2, p. 14.

years or less.25/ By 1984, 38 African countries were reported to have estimates of life expectancy at birth of below 60 years and only 5 above 60 years.

84. The Regional Intergovernmental Meeting on Aging held in Addis Ababa in 1982 concluded that aging is not a critical problem in Africa at the present time. However, it noted that most countries were on the threshold of a substantial increase in the population 60 years and over. 26/ As life expectancy increases the number of the aging tends to increase, which in turn tends to increase the old age dependency burden. It is this aspect of the problem that should be of concern to policy-makers specially as they deal with the problems associated with establishing a viable social security system. Social policy-makers and planners must look ahead and develop strategies for dealing with the aging at the same time that they strive for improvements in general standards of life.

The Disabled

85. It is estimated that the number of physically, mentally or sensorially disabled persons in the world is between 340 and 480 million, which represents about 7 percent to 10 percent of the world population. Some 35 percent of these live in developing countries where services are insufficient or not available at all, in particular in the rural areas and among the poorest social groups.27/ An estimated 50 million cases of disability are found in Africa. An ECA study of 1985 identified the causal and/or aggravating factors as poor health care services, hunger, natural calamities, political conflicts and civil strifes, wars of liberation, environmental pollution and various forms of accidents. 28/

86. The 1981 International Year of Disabled Persons (IYDP) increased awareness and created some momentum for action, especially in the non-governmental sector. Many governments in Africa have now formulated national plans for the prevention of disability and the rehabilitation of disabled persons. Relevant laws and regulations have been promulgated or existing ones revised. Disabled persons themselves have formed organizations to promote their rights and to participate in decisions affecting their lives. At the regional level, the OAU in collaboration with the ILO and ECA spearheaded the implementation of the objectives of the IYDP by sensitizing member States to support the establishment of the African Rehabilitation Institute for Disabled Persons (ARI), in Harare, Zimbabwe, in 1984. Currently, the feasibility of establishing subregional training and research centres of ARI is being vigorously pursued.

87. With regard to policies and legislative provisions for the disabled, the following picture emerges from the subregions. The Northern African countries

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25/ Ibid., p. 61, para. 250.

26/ See ECA, Report of the Regional Intergovernmental Meeting on Aging, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 1-5 March 1982 (SDD/RMA/82/RPT.2).

27/ UNO, Evaluation of the Strategy, op. cit., 1986, para. 80.

28/ See ECA, The Situation of Disabled Persons in Africa (ECA/SDEHSD/DPP.1), 1985.

seem to be most active in establishing legal instruments to help the disabled. Egypt, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Sudan and Tunisia have made provision in their laws and development plans for the disabled involving, in the Libyan case for example, provisions for the establishment of professional rehabilitation centres and workshops for prosthetic aids in the country. Available records for countries in the West African subregion show very little done regarding the provision of laws and policies aimed at improving the conditions of disabled persons. In Eastern Africa, most plans to pass specific legislation on the disabled are still in their infancy, and public concern for disabled persons is still largely the province of non-governmental organizations. The situation in the Central African subregion reveals no clear-cut policies or legislations having emerged while, in Southern Africa, specific legislations are still in their proposal stages.

88. The establishment of a Pan-African Institute for the Deaf is being promoted by the National Association of the Deaf of Senegal. The main objective of this project is to promote co-operation among African countries in the field of prevention, special education and rehabilitation of hearing-impaired persons through training of personnel in the proposed institute. However, much work still needs to be done, both by national governments and international organizations, for the disabled in Africa. One positive factor is that there is now a much broader public awareness that the problem of the disabled is a societal concern. But there is need to establish more accurate data on the disabled and ARI should facilitate the process of data collection and analysis.

Migrants

89. Accelarated urbanization, especially in developing countries, has become an important determinant of population movement. Since 1975, Africa has experienced the fastest rate of urbanization in the world. From 1975-1980, there was a 32 percent increase in Africa's urban population as compared to 12 percent in the Americas and just over 20 percent in the South East Asian region. From 1975 to 1985, the African urban population increased by more than 70 percent. 29/ The increase in Africa's urban population is not generally caused by growing industrialization but by the constant drift of population from rural to urban and peri-urban areas. In spite of a strong desire for reducing the socio-economic disparity between rural and urban areas, conditions continue to worsen in rural areas and the young and the able-bodied continue to look for solace in the urban areas. Consequently, urban social conditions become worse, crime, drug abuse and other social ills increase. The LPA, the ECA's perspective study to the year 2008, 30/ APPER and UN-PAAERD have all drawn attention to the dangers that this pattern of urbanization poses and its implications for the well-being of the people and for political stability.

90. Besides internal population movements, three types of international migration patterns can be discerned in Africa. Labour migration across the boundaries of independent African countries, especially in Western Africa; labour migration

29/ WHO, Evaluation of the Strategy, op.cit., 1986, p. 17.

30/ ECA, ECA and Africa's Development, 1983-2008: A Preliminary Perspective Study (Addis Ababa, 1983).

from the so-called "labour reserve economies" in Southern Africa 31/; and international migration, particularly from Northern Africa to Western Europe and the Gulf States. The three types of international migration pose various problems to migrant workers. These problems can be divided into the following categories:

(a) Socio-economic conditions of migrant workers in the host countries;

(b) civil and human rights of migrant workers in the host countries;

(c) workers' rights to repatriate income to their home countries; and

(d) enforceability of international conventions covering the rights of migrant labour in host countries.

91. Comprehensive studies such as the one initiated by ECA are required to analyze the scope of these problems and make sound recommendations. With respect to intra-African migrations, the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs, the Organization of African Trade Union Unity (OATUU), the OAU Labour Commission and the OAU should seek to get the African governments to be more sensitive to the rights, interests and welfare of migrant workers. Greater efforts should be exerted at the African level and at the level of the international community to end the apartheid regime in Pretoria which holds African migrant workers at ransom. On the one hand, South Africa uses migrant workers as a bargaining tool against the Front Line States; on the other, it uses the expulsion threat to make them even more subservient to the oppressive apartheid regime. 32/ Furthermore, the destabilization policy of South Africa causes large populations to flee from their homes. Mozambique has witnessed some of the worst consequences. For example, an estimated 70,000 to 90,000 people who crossed the borders into Malawi were reported to be returning in late 1986 to vastly deteriorated social and economic conditions in Mozambique. 33/

92. The plight of Africans working in Europe and the Gulf States should also be studied with a view to finding solutions to ameliorate their working and living conditions. The impact of these migrations on the political economies of the African States should also be studied. Where the different types of migrations have constituted a veritable "brain drain" or cause significant labour shortages, such as reported for Egypt in the agricultural

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31/ See, Thandika Mkandawire, "The informal Sector in the Labour Reserve Economies of Southern Africa with special Reference to Zimbabwe", Africa Development, Vol. XI, no 1 (January-March 1986), pp. 61-81.

32/ For a further discussion of this issue, see suggestions made at the Ninth Ordinary Session of the OAU Labour Commission, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 2-9 April 1986 (OAU,LC/-Rap.-Rpt.IX).

33/ See UNDRO cable no. 86/3038 of 5 December 1986 to ECA, UNEP and UNDP; and Government of Mozambique (Ministry of Commerce) document on "Food Situation, November 1986-October 1987", dated 27 October 1986.

sector, 34/ urgent action would be required to create the conditions conducive for the return of the migrants.

Refugees and Displaced Persons

93. There were, as of November 1986, about 10 million refugees in the world.35/ At least 5 million of these are to be found in Africa. Since 1980, with the intensification of the struggle against the apartheid regime and systematic attempts by this regime to destabilize the Front Line States, the refugee problem in Southern Africa has grown from bad to worse. In other parts of Africa, particularly Algeria, Sudan, Kenya, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Zambia, Central African Republic, Zaire and Somalia problems of refugees running away from internal strifes and social unrest in their own countries have also continued to mount.

94. By February 1986, Tanzania reported having 180,000 refugees, with several thousand living in urban areas and facing specific social problems such as housing, education, work and steady sources of income. 36/ The problems of urban refugees, many of whom are women and girls as pointed out in a recent ECA study, 37/ deserve particular attention in order to minimize their impact on the already strained social services in many urban areas.

95. Somalia and Sudan present other major theatres of refugee problems in Africa. 38/ By January 1985, the number of refugees and displaced persons who had fled the combined effects of war, drought and famine and entered Sudan was estimated at 700,000. A similar figure was given for the number of refugees in Somalia. Most of these refugees are rural people and the problems they face are enormous, ranging from huge emergency requirements of shelter, health, food and clothing to those associated with their integration into the political economy of the host countries.

96. Some rural refugees seasonally return to their motherland when climatic conditions change; this has been the pattern of behaviour of Ethiopians driven by drought into Eastern Sudan. Others also return voluntarily when the

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34/ See, Fawzy Mansour, "The Egyptian Political Economy during the Last Ten Years", paper presented at a United Nations University Seminar on "Popular Alliances and the State", Arusha, Tanzania, November 1985.

35/ This figure was given at the Cyprus Conference on Refugees organized by the World Council of Churches in November 1986. See also United Nations, 1985 Report on the World Social Situation (New York, 1985), p. 26.

36/ See Tala Skari, "Tanzania: Counselling Service Helps Urban Refugees", Refugees no. 26 (February 1986), pp. 14-15; also P.C. Mindi, "Refugees in Tanzania", East Africa Social Science Research Review, Vol. 1, no. 1 (January 1985).

37/ ECA, Refugee and Displaced Women in Independent African States (E/ECA/ATRCW/86/06), Addis Ababa, 1986.

38/ See "Dossier: Sudan, One Year Later", Refugees, no. 27 (March 1986), pp. 19-35; Salim Lone, "Disaster Fears Grows in the Sudan", Africa Emergency, no. 3 (July 1985), p. 6.

concerned governments and the UNHCR give assurances of safety. This has also happened in the last two years with Ethiopian refugees returning from Djibouti. In order to arrest the intermittent movement of populations across porous borders, programmes of integrated rural development must be undertaken or strengthened in drought-prone areas, or populations displaced by frequent droughts and other natural disasters should be methodically resettled in more suitable areas. Such resettlement programmes, no doubt, entail considerable difficulties. On one hand, there is the limited ability of people already weakened by hunger and disease to adjust to new physical and, often, socio-cultural environment. On the other hand, there are the difficulties governments face in providing new settlers with the necessary tools and services. Re-settlement programmes also tend to be costly. For these reasons, they must be undertaken only after careful consideration of all humanitarian, social and economic factors. The programmes are more likely to succeed if recruitment is done on a voluntary basis and the young and forward-looking are recruited to do the pioneering work in new settlements.

97. It must be emphasized that the refugee phenomenon is caused mainly by socio-political conditions under which certain individuals, communities and groups develop the fear of being persecuted, or are actually persecuted and have to flee their own country in search of safety and security in life. In some cases, political intolerance is coupled with lack of sensitivity to the economic and working conditions of the intellectuals, many of whom have fled from African institutions in recent years. Therefore, the analysis and plea of the African Vice-Chancellors and University Presidents made in 1985 at their second meeting of their Conference in Swaziland needs to be taken seriously. They noted in their report:

> "Intellectual communities constituted by institutions of higher learning serve their societies best when they are allowed the space to develop and test their ideas in an atmosphere of critical discourse. This essential condition may sometimes appear to pit these communities, or some of their members, against established or official ideas and policies. Unfortunately, some African Governments have reacted to such situations in ways that have proved dysfunctional to the development and maintenance of a thriving intellectual atmosphere, without which institutions of higher learning could not make their due and special contribution to national development. We therefore ask for understanding and tolerance to enable us to discharge our grave responsibilities in an atmosphere of productivity, creativity and increased relevance." 39/

98. As has been stated in many forums, what needs to be urgently addressed are the root causes of the refugee phenomenon and how to deal with them. Major political, social and economic decisions and commitments need to be taken and decisions and commitments already taken at the African and international levels must be implemented to find durable solutions.

39/ ECA, Report of the Second Conference of Vice-Chancellors/Presidents/Rectors of Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa, 18-22 February 1985, Mbabane, Swaziland (E/ECA/CM.11/47), Annex II, p. 4.

PART IV DEVELOPMENTAL SOCIAL WELFARE

99. Developmental social welfare is highlighted and given special focus in this survey because of its relevance to the African social situation in the mid-1980s. The concept of developmental social welfare was proposed for the first time at the United Nations Conference of Ministers Responsible for Social Welfare, convened at the United Nations Headquarters in New York in September 1968. 40/ The meeting was convened at a time when social welfare in general and the social work profession in particular were passing through a crisis of confidence in the non-industrialized countries.

100. It must be noted that upon accession to independence, most new nations in Africa, Asia and Latin America adopted Euro-American systems of social work to deal with problems of destitution, social deviance and other symptoms of social disorganizations. These social problems were occasioned by rapid and haphazard urbanization, rising unemployment, congested residential patterns, alcoholism, drug abuse and all kinds of anomic behaviour which threatened to disrupt not only individual and family life but also posed threats to the social fabrics of urban communities with serious implications for the entire society.

101. Social planners and policy-makers began to grapple with these issues, by formulating remedial policies and strategies. It became evident by the late 1960s that the problems were structural both in origin and scope and the solutions so far tried had not produced the desired results. In rather superficial ways, too, the organizational forms existing in the industrialized societies were replicated in the Third World countries but without the manpower and material resources compliments required to sustain them at levels that could make them effective. Thus, casework and groupwork agencies, family counselling services, community recreation facilities, probation offices for juvenile delinquents and a host of similar organizations were established mainly to serve the urban areas. Schools of social work were established at professional and sub-professional levels, some under the auspices of universities and other under the auspices of government departments of social welfare.

102. In Africa, the situation was even more complicated by the fact that countries were subjected to influences from at least two traditions of social intervention namely, the Anglo-Saxon tradition and the French-Latin tradition. The Anglo-Saxon tradition is permeated by the American concepts of public assistance and psychosocial intervention designed to restore social functioning to individuals, families, groups and communities who are presumed to have lost it because of their inability to harmonize their lives with their environment. The French tradition on the other hand emphasized the medical aspects of social welfare as well as social security.

103. The inherited approaches in social intervention in Africa as elsewhere in the developing world were characterized by an orientation which regarded social problems as results of the failures of the victims. From the late 1960s social scientists began to recognize that the modern societies at various stages of social, economic and political development were structured in ways that did not

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40/ United Nations, Proceedings of the International Conference of Ministers Responsible for Social Welfare, New York, 3-12 September 1968, (E/Conf.55/12), p. 34 ff.

ensure equality of access to national resources such as education, health, jobs, income and cultural amenities. The inequalities were sharpened because of the dichotomy between the urban and rural areas which was [illegible] by colonial rule. It was, therefore, the primary objective of social development to correct such system deficiencies. The correction of these deficiencies involve the use of such approaches of social engineering as the mobilization of viable traditional community institutions to respond to individual and collective problems and needs, identification of their strengths and weaknesses and correction of their weaknesses through system rationalization by means of the use of community organizations and community development approaches. These approaches are premised upon the imperatives of promoting unimpeded peoples' participation as agents of the needed structural transformation. In Africa, such traditional community institutions would include groups and organizations based on kinship, age, sex and occupation.

104. However, there would still be individuals and social groups who would remain on the economic and social periphery on account of physical and psychosocial handicaps. It is the responsibility of the state and community to create systems to meet the basic needs of such persons which otherwise would be left unmet. This is the kind of responsibility which a modern society cannot shirk.

105. It is against this background that the Ministers responsible for Social Welfare found it necessary to redefine in 1968 the theory and practice of social welfare in the light of contemporary development realities. They thus conceived of social welfare as having three major functions, namely the remedial, preventive and developmental. 41/ In their report, no specific elaborations were offered concerning what actually constituted developmental social welfare. However, over the years, national and international organizations have attempted to operationalize the concept. Thus, in Africa issues such as urbanization, rural development, youth and development, women and development, population and family planning, co-operatives as organizational mechanisms for the improvement of living conditions for rural and urban populations became subjects of seminars, workshops and conferences in the decade of the 1970s and the present, with a view to placing the various social concerns within the mainstream of development analysis and practice.

106. African universities and Pan-African non-governmental organizations such as the Association for Social Work Education in Africa (ASWEA) established in 1971, have over the last decade and half attempted through seminars, workshops and publications to identify concrete areas of developmental social welfare to which training institutions in social development in the region must address themselves. Much concern in shown by these institutions with problems of rural poverty and underprivilege. Thus, the subject of ASWEA's Fifth Conference in 1985 was the role of social development workers in rural development and the implication of this for restructuring social welfare curricula. The Conference also made specific recommendations on the mobilization of women and youth in the rationalization of rural economic activities so as to improve their income-earning capacities. In June 1986, the University of Zimbabwe School of Social Work organized a workshop on the methods of combating rural poverty in Africa and the role of the social workers.

41/ Ibid.

107. There are indications that national governments are also re-orienting their social welfare policies and programmes towards development. However, the impact of both the national and regional efforts have yet to be evaluated. It is, therefore, vital that the fifth meeting of the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs direct existing Pan-African institutions such as ACARTSOD and ASWA to work together in evaluating the likely impact of all the recent activities on social work training and practice in the region.

PART V CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusion

108. The foregoing survey shows that socio-economic conditions are not very encouraging in Africa. This is a fact that has been repeated frequently in recent discussions of Africa's socio-economic crisis. What this study has tried to do is to analyze the trends of social development within the context of this crisis and try to determine what impact certain policy initiatives have had on the socio-economic well-being of the African people.

109. It has been noted that, although the 1985-1986 food situation showed some improvement over that of the preceding three years, there is still need for African policy-makers to have sounder agricultural and food policies. Such policies should aim at making agricultural production less dependent on the vagaries of the weather. There should be early warning systems to avoid being caught unprepared. Attention must be given to the nutritional aspects of the food situation to maximize health and productivity. In this respect, more attention should be directed at the rural population where people still lack the basic necessities of life.

110. The data on health and nutrition reported in this survey suggest that special attention should be given to pregnant and lactating mothers, infants and children. A review of the health status of the population of the region in the eighties has shown that Africa still has one of the poorest health situations in the world, a health situation characterized by unacceptably high maternal and infant mortality rates. If the goals of "Health for All by the Year 2000" are to be attained in Africa, considerably more work has to be done in improving the quality of the environment, increasing the access of both rural and urban populations to safe water supply and to low-cost sanitary facilities, and accelerating efforts in nutrition education and local production of foodstuffs which are sources of essential nutrients for the mass of the African population.

111. Africa's fast growing populations have posed serious problems for policy-makers regarding housing, land-use and social amenities. Without an improvement in socio-economic conditions in the rural areas, few African governments will be able to control the influx of the rural unemployed into urban and peri-urban areas. The social, economic and political problems that such influx poses can only be dealt with effectively by increasing efforts in bringing about relatively rapid rural socio-economic transformation. In the final analysis, the question of rural development is a question of equity and social justice for the majority of the African population.

112. Increased urbanization is a sign that African economies are changing. Some degree of structural differentiation is certainly taking place. However, as pointed out in the survey, the major problem with Africa's pattern of industrialization is that it is not internally integrated. Most industries are of the import-substitution type which can generate employment only for a few highly-skilled workers and produce manufactured goods for the urban elite. The end result is that African urban areas do not grow as a result of dynamic industrialization, but more as a result of the growth of bureaucratic employment and the demands of the service sector. Such a situation can get out of hand unless urgent steps are taken to arrest the further development of the particular type of industrialization with all the social and political consequences it entails.

113. With respect to the situation of particular population groups, especially the underprivileged, it is noteworthy that some progress has been made in the area of women in development, especially at the level of public awareness of the issues involved, since the United Nations Decade for Women. In terms of concrete action, however, a lot still needs to be done especially with regard to poor rural, urban and peri-urban women. Not enough attention has been paid to the problems of the aging. This survey has drawn attention to the changes that are occurring in the African family systems, especially in urban Africa. These changes entail, among other things, a need to look at how the aging are cared for where they tend to lose the support of traditional kinship and family structures. Not enough information has been assembled on this, and urgent research is called for to aid policy-makers arrive at sound decisions. The youth too, are affected by changes in the family structure, especially in urban areas, and in the political economy generally. Imaginative social policies are required to deal with the multi-faceted problems of the growing youthful segment of the African population.

114. Natural disasters and civil strife have continued to make Africa bear the heaviest burden of refugees and displaced persons in the world. Countries also need to strengthen their capabilities for meeting disasters. Populations would also remain more stable under improved political conditions in certain parts of Africa. In any event, the social needs of Africa's uprooted populations need to be met with imaginative and creative policies and programmes since Africa's greatest assets is its people.

115. In the final analysis, development means improving conditions of living for all in both qualitative and quantitative terms. The survey has drawn attention to the need to address the qualitative and quantitative impact of policies and programmes on the life situations of people with reference to specific social indicators showing whether life is improving or becoming worse for individuals or groups of people in society. In this regard, the seriousness of governments to improve the standards of living of the people can be judged by priorities placed on public spending and the sacrifices made to invest in projects and programmes which are aimed at improving life situations. A general survey of social development policies as has been undertaken here still leads to one general conclusion: that there is still need for a more sincere commitment to the social aspects of development. With such commitment, governments should be able to implement, at least in the short and medium term, the critical social aspects of the programmes adopted in APPER and UN-PAAERD.

3. Recommendations for Policy and Practical Action

116. The global strategies of the LPA, APPER and UN-PAAERD all make recommendations to improve the African social situation. Likewise strategies and plans of action on special questions such as the Arusha Strategies for the Advancement of African Women, the Regional Food Plan for Africa, the Regional Plan of Action on the Disabled all provide concrete guidance to necessary action. The fourth meeting of the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs took these available plans and strategies into consideration in making their wide-ranging recommendations. The crucial thing is that they should be implemented. However, in the light of the discussion in this survey and the more current requirements of APPER and UN-PAAERD, the following recommendations are highlighted:

(a) The social dimension of development

(i) Governments should make more determined efforts to incorporate the social dimension centrally into their development planning and policy-formulation from the start of these processes and not as a residual action;

(ii) Key principles of social development such as equity, social justice, human dignity and people's participation should be reflected in all sectors of national development plans;

(iii) Where Governments undertake adjustment policies and programmes in response to the current economic crisis, particular attention should be paid to their impact on the welfare of the population especially women, children and any vulnerable groups;

(iv) Government ministries/departments responsible for different aspects of social development as well as national, subregional and regional institutions in the social field should engage in continuous research on the social situation and the social aspects of development.

(b) Food and agriculture

At the national level

(i) The immediate objective of national food and agricultural policies should be aimed at combating and coping with the problem of food shortages by:

- creating and sustaining national emergency preparedness;
- instituting effective early-warning systems;
- establishing flexible and efficient regional networks of crop protection agencies;
- establishing national food security arrangements.

(ii) In the medium-term, the main objective should be to give new impetus to agricultural development in order to achieve increasing levels of productivity and production through:

- raising substantially the level of investment in agriculture;
- restoring, protecting and developing arable land and rendering it more productive;

(iii) Policy reforms should be undertaken to increase the efficiency of resource use in order to raise the general standard of health. The first step is to aim at delivering a minimum package of health care, especially immunization against major communicable diseases, oral rehydration therapy, early diagnosis and treatment of acute respiratory infections and malaria in children under five. To do this, governments will need to reorient their public health systems by expanding access to community-based primary health care services particularly in rural areas.

At the subregional and regional levels

(i) Collaboration in research and information sharing among subregional and regional institutions should be strengthened through publications, technical meetings and exchange of scientists;

(ii) Work on food and nutrition should be integrated, through a multisectoral approach, into national and regional development plans. Nutrition, child health and family planning related activities should be strengthened in the context of primary health care programmes.

At the international level

(i) The World Health Organization should strengthen its co-operation with African countries in intensifying work in research in nutrition by increasing technical assistance in the context of primary health care;

(ii) The World Health Organization is collaborating with member States and other United Nations agencies such as UNICEF, as well as with non-governmental organizations in the implementation of national, subregional and regional programmes in the field of primary health care. Countires should make more adequate use of the resources of such international organizations in the strenghtening of basic infrastructure for the implementation of the goal of "Health for All by the Year 2000".

(d) Employment

At the national level

(i) In view of the limited capacity of governments to provide employment to all people and in view of the relative smallness of the sectors of modern economic activities in both the public or private sectors, it is vital that governments consider the stimulation of employment potentials of agriculture and that of the urban informal sector through appropriate fiscal policies;

(ii) Governments should also develop coherent and systematic policies regarding retirement benefits. Retirement policies must be accompanied with viable social security policies;

(iii) Social policies and actions should take into account resolutions of the Ninth Ordinary Session of the OAU Labour Commission which dealt extensively with measures to be taken to deal with employment-related problems in Africa.

At the subregional and regional levels

It is unfortunate that efforts to harmonize labour laws and the labour movement through OATUU have been plagued with difficulties recently. Africa urgently needs to develop common policies regarding labour laws, labour remunerations and the movement of labour across frontiers. It is only through economic integration, at the subregional and regional levels, that African countries can cope with the problems of unemployment that are now so rampant.

At the international level

(i) Economic development projects financed by the donor community should aim at generating employment in the recipient countries. The international community of investors who push non-viable industrial projects onto recipient countries should desist from the practice;

(ii) The practice of financing projects in which a large percentage of funds are spent on external consultancy services should be discouraged. Instead, where indigenous qualified manpower is available in an African recipient country, it should be used; if this manpower is not available, it can probably be found in other African countries. The use of such regional manpower will promote technical co-operation among the developing African countries (TCDC);

(iii) The current efforts being made by the International Committee on Migration (ICM) to return skilled manpower to Africa among those working abroad should be encouraged. But ICM should let those involved make their own decisions regarding which African country they would like to work in irrespective of the countries that ICM currently deals with.

(c) Shelter and Human Settlements

At the national level

(i) Since the growth of slums in African cities and urban areas is becoming a big health problem, spontaneous settlements must be controlled as an urgent task. However, those who are displaced as a result of the clearance of urban or peri-urban slums must be provided with alternative housing units. Economic housing schemes must be developed for urban centres and rural areas where they should be part and parcel of integrated rural development programmes;

(ii) Because there is little harmonization of housing development roles between the private and public sectors, efforts at laying down minimum standards have often proved difficult. Governments need to have strict policies regarding such standards for both the rural and urban areas. There is also an urgent need for regulating prices of houses in the open market;

(iii) There is need for policies to promote proper land-use in real estate development. Proper provision must be made for social amenities in the development of new settlements. Projected population growth and

future housing demand should be taken into consideration when designing housing projects in any urban centre. The problem of financing should also receive more attention than it does now;

(iv) As a way of cutting down construction costs, deliberate efforts should be made to use locally available materials. The state should set the example by using locally available materials so as to encourage the public to do the same.

At the subregional and regional levels

Subregional and regional facilities should be established or existing ones strengthened to facilitate research and development in the building industry. Research findings and reports of tested successful experiments should be widely disseminated.

(f) Family welfare and social security

(i) Policy actions at the national, subregional and regional levels should take note of the relevant resolutions and recommendations of the Ninth Ordinary Session of the OAU Labour Commission held in 1986, the 1982 Regional Intergovernmental Meeting on Aging, as well as the OAU Ad-Hoc Ministerial Committee of Five on Social Security in Africa; 42/

(ii) Social security measures should be introduced at the national level, wherever they do not yet exist, to cover not only the employed but also other social groups including peasants and other underprivileged groups;

(iii) In training social workers, greater emphasis should be placed, not only on their roles in preventive intervention but also on their roles as development agents. Maximum use should be made of the existing African training institutions in the field of social development in training change agents who can effectively operate within an interdisciplinary framework;

(iv) Quite often the unemployed are repatriated to the rural areas "where they come from" only to become an economic burden to their families and relatives. Family solidarity should not be used as an escape from solving the employment problem at the macro level. Serious studies should therefore be undertaken to determine ways and means of assisting the unemployed and the underemployed in both rural and urban areas to help themselves through gainful self-employment activities.

(g) Women

At the national level

(i) Efforts to achieve wider participation in decision-making in society have been mainly by appointing women to certain senior positions in the public sector. Though such efforts are commendable, governments

42/ See OAU, LC/Exp.2 (VII), 1984 and subsequent reports of the Committee.

and women should be vigilant against the possibility of such measures remaining symbolic;

(ii) The education system should be reformed in such a way that males and females receive equal opportunity for the development of their intellectual capacities;

(iii) All governments which have not yet done so should accede to and ratify the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. All governments which have ratified the Convention should implement its provisions;

(iv) As advocated in the Arusha Strategies for the Advancement of African Women and in the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, 43/ maternal and child-care facilities, including family planning services, should be within easy reach of all women, especially those in the rural areas;

(v) Immediate steps should be taken to abolish the practice of child marriage and all traditional practices detrimental to the health and well-being of women.

At the subregional and regional levels

The necessity of African countries pooling their collective resources in the promotion of women's integration of development through research, information exchange and technical co-operation has been stressed in the Arusha Strategies for the Advancement of African Women. To this end, existing subregional and regional machineries and institutions should be strengthened by allocating more qualified personnel and more financial resources. Policies and programmes on education, training and employment should be given high priority.

(b) Youth

At the national level

(i) While the universalization of primary education and making second and third level institutions more accessible are highly valued goals, it is necessary to restructure curricula in ways that will permit a balance between theoretical education and practical training. In order to impart to students marketable skills, primary and secondary school curricula should be infused with science and technology related subjects;

(ii) The role of the school in rural and semi-rural settings should be redefined to make such schools centres for the development and experimentation of five new methods and technologies of production. Positive results of such experimentation should be disseminated and popularized in the larger community through extension work.

43/ ECA/OAU, Arusha Strategies, op.cit., para. 72, p. 32; United Nations, The Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (April 1986), para. 155, p. 39.

At the subregional and regional levels

(i) There should be regional education commission to look into the syllabi in African schools to ascertain the extent to which they impart pan-Africanist orientation and attitudes;

(ii) New approaches to formal education in the rural and semi-rural settings should be promoted through subregional and regional co-operation;

(iii) African universities and other institutions of learning should deliberately seek to promote exchange staff as well as exchange of experiences in research and experimentation;

(iv) The Organization of African Unity should look into ways and means of establishing an African University;

(v) The Organization of African Unity should look urgently into ways and means of establishing the Voice of Africa, a radio service which would be beamed throughout Africa and which would reach particularly the non-literate or semi-literate population.

At the international level.

(i) Bilateral and multilateral assistance should be directed at strengthening recipient country capacity for creating and maintaining viable educational institutions at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels;

(ii) Bilateral and multilateral assistance in the form of scholarships and/or fellowships should be evaluated by recipient governments from the standpoint of their usefulness as catalysts of development in scientific, technological and managerial capacity.

(i) The aging

At the national level

(i) Since the ability of any country to extend adequate protection to its elderly is a function of the level of economic development and since most African countries face scarcity of development resources, it is essential that attempts be made to transfer resources from one sector to another. The evolution of comprehensive population policy and planning with a view to reducing the youth dependency burden can release some resources which may be used in taking better care of the elderly;

(ii) In line with the recommendations of the 1982 Regional Intergovernmental Meeting on Aging, every effort should be made to preserve, strengthen and/or support African kinship and familial organizations responsible for caring for the aging in the home environment.

At the international level

(i) To increase public awareness about the problems of aging, an "International Year for the Aging" should be proclaimed;

(ii) Bilateral and multilateral assistance should be given to increase research efforts to acquire a better understanding of the changes taking place in the African kinship and family systems and their implications for the care of the aging.

(j) The disabled

At the national level

(i) Institutions should be established or, where they already exist, strengthened to look after the disabled;

(ii) Governments should ascertain that:

- provisions are made to facilitate movement for the disabled in public facilities, transportation, public buildings, streets, etc.;
- there is no discrimination against the disabled in educational institutions and in all public amenities;
- public funds are available to help the disabled utilize their skills and potentials actively; and
- laws and regulations are made and enforced which ensure the proper compensation of anybody disabled as a result of an accident in travelling, at the place of work, etc.

(iii) Wherever possible, the disabled should be encouraged to have a nationally-recognized interest group registered as a society or a non-governmental organization. Such a group should actively look after the interests of the disabled, bringing to the attention of government and other interested parties issues related to the welfare of its members.

At the subregional and regional levels

(i) The establishment of the African Rehabilitation Institute for Disabled Persons will go a long way to deal with the problem of disabled persons. To that end, ARI's work should be strengthened, its subregional branches should be established and member States should continue to give it the necessary financial support it will need in carrying out its mandate and responsibilities;

(ii) ARI should co-operate with ACARTSOD and ASUSA in carrying out cross-national research on disability within the broad context of social development in Africa.

At the international level

Donor support is needed in supporting the work of ARI. Donor support should also help to finance cross-national research into the major causes of disability and the social and economic implications of disability which can be undertaken by ARI in co-operation with ACARTSOD and ASUSA.

(k) Refugees and Displaced Persons

At the national level

(i) Efforts at national integration should be increased by pursuing clear-cut policies and implementing realistic programmes to promote greater centre-periphery linkages and equitable distribution of economic, social and political power among various groups of the population;

(ii) Sacrifices associated with nation-building efforts should be equally shared by all population groups.

At the subregional and regional levels

(i) Since problems of refugees and displaced persons cannot be confined to national boundaries, a subregional and regional approach must be adopted towards confronting them. The burden placed on host countries should be borne by all countries in Africa by collectively undertaking development-oriented projects to make the refugees productive and useful to themselves. These projects should be financed through regional and subregional arrangements in close collaboration with refugee-recipient countries;

(ii) There is an urgent need to establish an African Centre for the dissemination of information on refugee problems and on refugee and humanitarian laws as recommended by the 1979 Arusha Conference on the Situation of Refugees in Africa.

Table I

PER CENT GROWTH OF GDP (AT CONSTANT PRICES)
FOR SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

(1960-84)

	1960-70	1970-75	1975-80	1980-84	1981	1982	1983	1984
IDA eligible countries	3.6	2.4	2.3	0.7	1.7	0.8	-0.1	0.8
Other sub-Saharan Africa	3.9	7.8	3.4	-2.6	-1.7	-1.6	-4.4	-2.4
Total sub-Saharan Africa	3.7	5.5	3.0	-1.4	-0.5	-0.7	-2.7	-1.2

Source: The World Bank, Financing Adjustment With Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa, 1986-20 (Washington, 1986)

Table II

GDP GROWTH RATES PER CAPITA BY SUB-REGION

	1980-1981	1981-1982	1982-1983	1983-1984	Average
Indian Ocean Island countries	-6.6	-2.1	-1.7	-0.2	-2.7
East Africa	1.2	-1.3	-2.9	-3.2	-1.5
Southern African States	2.1	-0.4	-5.9	-5.4	-2.4
Central Africa	3.6	0.6	-0.6	7.3	2.7
Sahel	3.1	1.4	-0.1	-7.7	-2.8
Non-Sahel West Africa	-3.8	-2.8	-10.8	-7.3	-6.2
North Africa	-0.6	1.5	0.6	1.9	0.8
TOTAL	-1.3	-0.4	-3.9	-2.0	1.9

Source. OAU/ECA, Africa's Submission to the Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly on Africa's Economic and Social Crisis (OAU/ECM/2XV/Rev.2, E/ECA/FCM.1/1/Rev.2), Addis Ababa, November 1986, Table 1, pp. 177-178.

Table III

ESTIMATES AND PROJECTED ANNUAL GROWTH RATES OF POPULATION (PER CENT) IN THE ECA MEMBER STATES, 1980-2000 (MEDIUM VARIANT)

Country/Subregion	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000
All ECA member States	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8
Northern Africa	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.5
Algeria	3.6	3.5	3.3	3.0
Egypt	2.3	2.0	1.9	1.8
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.3
Morocco	3.3	3.3	3.2	2.9
Sudan	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8
Tunisia	2.4	2.2	1.9	1.7
Western Africa	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.9
Benin	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.2
Burkina Faso	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3
Cape Verde	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.1
Gambia	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8
Ghana	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.0
Guinea	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9
Guinea Bissau	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.4
Ivory Coast	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.9
Liberia	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.9
Mali	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3
Mauritania	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1
Niger	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.2
Nigeria	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.0
Senegal	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5
Sierra Leone	2.3	2.8	2.8	2.8
Togo	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3
Middle Africa	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7
Angola	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5
Central African Republic	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.9
Chad	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.5
Congo	2.5	2.9	3.0	3.1
Equatorial Guinea	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7
Gabon	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7
Sao Tome and Principe	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0
United Republic of Cameroon	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5
Zaire	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8
Eastern Africa	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.0
Burundi	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.4
Comoro Islands	2.8	3.0	3.0	2.9
Djibouti	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.3
Ethiopia	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6
Kenya	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.8
Madagascar	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.9
Malawi	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.0
Mauritius	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.1

Table III contd,

Country/Subregion	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000
Mozambique	3.5	2.9	3.0	3.0
Rwanda	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0
Seychelles	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.4
Somalia	2.7	2.2	2.4	2.7
Uganda	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.0
United Republic of Tanzania	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1
Zambia	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.3
Zimbabwe	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.2
Southern Africa	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.5
Botswana	3.2	3.1	2.8	2.4
Lesotho	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5
Swaziland	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.7

Source: Reproduced from United Nations Demographic Handbook of Africa, 1982, pp 18-19

Table IV

FOOD PRODUCT

	Unit	1980	19
Cereals Total	1000MT	61922	614
Maize	"	18658	190
Rice	"	8576	87
Millet	"	10335	103
Sorghum	"	10575	113
Wheat	"	7593	66
Barley	"	4842	4
Roots and Tubers	"	36245	3
Cassava	"	48377	4
Yams	"	22756	23
Pulses Total	"	5262	5
Meat total	"	5572	5
Milk Total	"	11993	123
Citrus fruit, Total	"	3889	3
Plantains	"	15425	16
Fruit excl. Melons, Total	"	9238	9
Vegetables and Melons, Total	"	22093	226

Source: FAO, 1985. FAO Production Computer Print-ou
Statistics Division, Rome, Italy

TION, AFRICA 1930-85

81	1982	1983	1984	1985	Average annual charge (%)	
					1980-84	1984-85
89	62640	55820	56209	70202	-9.2	24.9
21	19455	17973	18869	[illegible]	1.1	21.3
13	8886	8985	8809	9344	2.7	5.8
41	9768	8279	8267	11001	-17.6	33.1
83	9941	8945	8219	11058	-22.3	34.5
60	8033	6983	7212	9134	0.0	26.7
60	4647	3837	3448	5275	-25.7	53.0
87	96565	92340	97292	95772	12.8	-1.6
75	51514	50723	56280	54369	16.2	-3.3
08	24442	22614	24734	24784	0.7	0.2
52	5553	5507	5417	5604	2.9	3.5
92	5529	5913	6106	6264	9.6	2.6
66	12976	13414	13286	12754	10.8	-4.0
50	4038	4017	4347	4461	11.8	2.6
07	16801	16766	16707	16744	8.3	0.2
75	32394	33513	34433	34656	7.9	0.6
14	22921	23896	24392	24858	10.4	1.9

ts, 12/16/85

Table V

ALLOCATION FOR HEALTH AS % GNP

% GNP allocated	No. of countries	% of total responding
Less than 5.0%	21	87.0%
50% and more	3	13.0%
Total	24	100.0
No data	20	45.0

Source: Evaluation of the Strategy for Health for All by the Year 2000: Seventh Report of the World Health Situation (February 1986), Table 15

Table VI

LOCAL HEALTH CARE COVERAGE

% of localities covered	No. of countries	% of total responding
Less than 20.0%	1	4.0%
20.0%-39.9%	5	20.0%
40.0%-59.9%	7	28.0%
60.0%-79.9%	7	28.0%
80.0% +	5	20.0%
Total with data	25	100.0%
No data	19	43.0%

Source: WHO 1986, op.cit., Table 3

Percentages calculated by the secretariat.

Table VII

STATUS OF IMMUNIZATION AGAINST ALL EPI DISEASES

% Fully immunized against the 6 EPI diseases	Number of countries		Population	
			Number	% of Total
10.0	-	-		
10-19.0%	1	5.9	23,790	0.53
20-29.0%	4	23.5	433,945	9.80
30-39.0%	3	17.6	1,362,820	30.79
40-49.0%	2	11.9	87,300	1.97
50-59.0%	4	23.5	2,252,938	50.91
60-69.0%	2	11.9	262,606	5.93
70-79.0%	-	-		
80-89.0%	-	-		
90-99.0%		5.9	1 820	0.04
Total with data	17		4,425,259	100.00
Total without data	29		13,233,512	74.94
Grand total	46		17,658,771	

Source: WHO, Evaluation of the Implementation of the Strategies for Health for All by the Year 2000: A Regional Report (Lusaka, September Table 7.20

Table VIII

IMMUNIZATION OF PREGNANT WOMEN AGAINST TITANUS

% of expectant mothers immunized against Titanus (2 Doses)	Number of countries	Live births	
		Number	%
10.0%	1	211,992	5.57
10-19%	4	2,273,593	59.81
20-29%	1	93,201	2.45
30-39%	-		
40-49%	-		
50-59%	1	1,047,700	27.56
60-69%	1	172,840	4.54
70-79%	-		
80-89%	-		
90-99%	1	1,820	0.04
Total with data	11	3,801,151	100.00
No data	35	13,857,620	78.47
Grand total	46	17,658,771	-

Source: WHO 1985, op.cit., Table 7.25

TABLE IX

SA

% of population with safewater	Number of Countri		
	Rural	Urban	B
10.0%	4	-	
10 - 19%	9	2	
20 - 29%	5	2	
30 - 39%	3	3	
40 - 49%	3	4	
50 - 59%	1	4	
60 - 69%	1	3	
70 - 79%	1	2	
80 - 89%	-	5	
90 - 99%	1	4	
Total with data	30	29	
Total without data	16	17	
GRAND TOTAL	46	46	

Source Data are combined from Tab

FE WATER WITHIN THE HOME OR WITHIN 15 MINUTES WALKING
DISTANCE BY THE RESIDENCE - RURAL, URBAN

es	Population					
oth	Rural	%	Urban	%	Both	%
11	14,288,845	6.55			32,160,000	9.70
6	118,332,826	54.31	177,250	0.34	64,414,849	19.43
9	20,309,145	9.32	1,005,480	1.96	139,767,882	42.16
9	33,780,879	15.50	13,051,432	25.55	29,511,769	8.90
3	19,745,839	9.06	2,249,860	4.40	8,280,000	2.49
3	4,358,568	2.00	2,818,057	5.51	• 22,282,611	6.72
3	5,660,922	2.59	18,735,237	36.68	33,046,112	9.96
1	856,400	0.39	2,633,333	5.15	• 1,007,000	0.30
-	---	-	8,223,423	16.10	---	--
2	529,168	0.24	2,171,794	4.25	1,036,863	0.31
37	217,362,592	100.00	51,065,883	100.00	331,507,086	100.00
9	66,979,431	23.51	27,888,301	35.32	36,838,035	--
46	284,842,023	--	78,954,184	--	368,345,121	--

les 7.11 (a), (b) and (c) of WHO 1985, op. cit.

TABLE X

SANITARY FACILIT

% with adequate Sanitary facilities	Number of countries			
	Rural	Urban	Both	
<10%	3	1	2	
10 - 19	3	-	3	
20 - 29	-	1	3	
30 - 39	1	2	1	
40 - 49	2	1	3	
50 - 59	-	2	-	
60 - 69	-	1	-	
70 - 79	1	2	4	
80 - 89	1	1		
90 - 99	1	3	2	
Total with data	12	14	18	
Total without data	34	32	28	
GRAND TOTAL	46	46	46	

Source: WHO 1985, op. cit., Tables 7.1.2.

ES IN THE HOME OR IMMEDIATE VICINITY

Population					
Rural	%	Urban	%	Both	%
17,563,144	23.6	1,536,204	10.5	12,570,000	13.4
8,728,520	11.7	---	--	13,253,611	14.2
---	--	1,486,380	10.2	10,091,000	10.8
18,771,754	25.2	1,327,489	9.1	1,887,000	1.1
4,558,667	6.1	963,500	6.6	13,610,000	14.6
---	--	2,633,333	18.0	---	--
---	--	115,190	0.8	---	--
18,625,063	25.0	1 159,108	7.9	41,975,112	44.9
5,660,922	7.6	1,435,630	9.8	---	--
529,168	0.7	3 973,999	27.2	1,036,863	1.1
74,437,238	100.0	14,630,833	100.0	93,554,586	100.0
210,404,785	72.86	64,323,351	81.5	274,790.535	74.6
284,842,023		78,954,184		368,345,121	

TABLE XI MAJOR CAUSES OF DEATH (1982)

Causes of Death	AFRICA		WORLD	
	Number	% of total	Number	% of total
Injections & parasitic diseases	3570	50%	16.830	33%
Neoplasm	210	3%	4.250	8%
Circulating and certain degeneration diseases	840	12%	13.330	26%
Conditions originating in the perinatal period	610	8%	3.250	6%
Injury and poisining	270	4%	2.670	5%
All other & unknown causes	1680	23%	10.480	21%
Total all causes	7180	100%	50.810	100%

Source: WHO 1986 op.cit. Table 15

TABLE XII MATERNAL MORTALITY RATES (REGIONAL COMPARISONS)

Region	National Maternal Mortality (Per 100,000 live births)	
	Lowest	Highest
Africa	100	1 100
Asia		
South	5	1 000
East	8	100
North America	6	10
Latin America	8	470
Europe and USSR	2	140
Oceania	14	900
World	2	1 100

Source: WHO, 1986, op.cit., Table 22.

TABLE XIII INFANT MORTALITY RATES - AN INTER-REGIONAL COMPARISON

Rate per 1 000 live births	Africa	America	S.E. Asia	Europe
Below 50	2	24	4	27
50.0 - 99.9	9	7	3	3
100 and more	32	3	4	
Sub-total	43	34	1	32
No data	1	-	-	3
Total	44	34	11	35

Source: WHO, Ibid., p. 65.

TABLE XIV PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED WOMEN OF REPRODUCTIVE AGE USING CONTRACEPTIVES 1980-1981

Region	Percentage of married women in their reproductive age
World total	45.0
Excluding China	38.0
Developing regions:	
Total	38.0
Excluding China	34.0
Africa	11.0
Asia:	42.0
East-Asia	69.0
South-Asia	24.0
Latin America	43.0
Developed regions	68.0

Source: WHO, Ibid., Table 31, p. 85.

TABLE XV TOTAL FERTILITY RATES BY REGION 1974-1985

Period	Africa	Americas	Regions South-East	Europe	Eastern Medit.	West Pacific	World
1975-1980	6.6	3.4	5.1	2.4	6.3	3.2	3.9
1980-1985	6.6	3.2	4.5	2.3	6.0	2.5	3.5

Source: WHO, Ibid., Table 2, p. 14.

TABLE XVI

	[illegible]
CENTRAL AFRICA	83
Angola	-
Burundi	33
Cameroon	107
Central African Republic	70
Chad	39
Congo	154
Equatorial Guinea	-
Gabon	-
Rwanda	70
Sao Tome and Principe	-
Zaire	9
EAST AFRICA	7
Botswana	10
Comoros	10
Djibouti	-
Ethiopia	4
Kenya	10
Lesotho	10
Madagascar	10
Malawi	5
Mauritius	10
Mozambique	6
Seychelles	-
Somalia	1
Swaziland	1
Uganda	1
United Republic of Tanzania	1
Zambia	1
Zimbabwe	1

FIRST SECOND, AND THIRD LEVEL ENROLLMENT RATIOS

PRIMARY t2 (1983)	SECONDARY t1	SECONDARY t2 (1983)	THIRD LEVEL t1	THIRD LEVEL t2 (1983)
88	18	14	1.1	1.4
134	-	12	0.0	0.4
45	3	4	0.5	0.6
108	19	21	1.6	1.6
77	14	16	1.3	1.1
38	3	6	0.2	0.2
-	69	-	6.0	-
76	-	11	4.0	-
118	-	23	4.0	3.3
62	2	2	-	0.3
-	-	-	-	-
88	23	18	1.0	1.2
74	12	13	0.8	1.0
96	23	21	1.4	1.6
91	25	23	-	-
-	-	-	-	-
46	12	13	0.5	0.6
100	20	19	1.0	0.9
110	18	19	2.0	2.2
35	14.	12	3.0	4.2
65	4	4	0.3	0.4
112	51	51	0.8	0.8
79	6	6	0.0	0.0
-	-	-	-	-
21	11	14	-	-
111	42	43	-	3.4
57	5	8	1.0	0.6
87	3	3	0.4	0.4
94	16	17	1.5	1.6
131	23	39	0.5	2.6

Table XVI contd.

	t_1	P
NORTH AFRICA	80	
Algeria	94	
Egypt	78	
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	123	
Morocco	78	
Sudan	52	
Tunisia	111	
WEST AFRICA	77	
Benin	65	
Burkina Faso	22	
Cape Verde	-	
Gambia	56	
Ghana	76	
Guinea	33	
Guinea-Bissau	88	
Ivory Coast	76	
Liberia	66	
Mali	27	
Mauritania	33	
Niger	23	
Nigeria	98	
Senegal	48	
Sierra Leone	39	
Togo	106	
Developing Africa	79	
Oil exporters	92	
Non oil exporters	72	
Least developed countries	58	
Other countries	88	

Source: The above Table is a combinat
Conditions in Africa 1983-198
in Africa, 1984-1985.

In the Survey of 1983-1984 the year
It is presumed that the period is be

IMARY	SECONDARY		THIRD LEVEL	
t_2 (1983)	t_1	t_2 (1983)	t_1	t_2 (1983)
82	38	41	8.4	8.9
94	36	43	4.6	5.5
88	54	58	14.7	15.5
-	67	-	6.0	-
79	26	29	6.2	6.2
50	18	18	2.0	2.0
113	32	33	5.1	5.3
79	16	12	1.7	1.7
67	21	22	2.0	2.0
27	3	4	0.5	0.6
131	-	10	-	-
68	16	19	-	-
79	34	38	1.0	1.6
36	16	15	4.3	3.0
63	15	10	-	-
79	20	19	2.2	2.7
78	20	23	2.0	2.5
24	9	7	1.0	0.9
37	10	12	-	-
27	5	6	0.0	0.0
98	16	8	1.8	1.8
53	12	12	2.5	2.2
45	12	14	1.0	0.6
102	27	24	1.7	1.7
79	21	19	3.1	3.2
98	30	26	5.7	5.7
69	16	15	1.5	1.6
53	11	11	1.1	1.1
87	21	21	2.0	2.3

ion of Table 15 of the ECA Survey of Economic and Social
4 and Table 15 of the Survey of Economic and Social Conditions

for which the data for t1 were applicable was not stated.
fore 1983.

TABLE XVII LITERACY

	LITERACY RATE	
	t_1 1980	t_2 1985
CENTRAL AFRICA	45	51.5
Angola	-	41.0
Burundi	25	33.8
Cameroon	40	56.2
Central African Republic	33	40.2
Chad	15	25.3
Congo	-	62.9
Equatorial Guinea	-	37.0
Gabon	-	61.6
Rwanda	50	46.6
Sao Tome et Principe	-	-
Zaire	55	61.2
EASTERN AFRICA	52	58.6
Botswana	35	70.8
Comoros	-	-
Djibouti	10	10.0
Ethiopia	47	55.2
Kenya	47	59.2
Lesotho	52	52.0
Madagascar	50	67.5
Malawi	25	41.2
Mauritius	85	82.8
Mozambique	33	38.0
Seychelles	75	75.0
Somalia	60	11.6
Swaziland	65	67.9
Uganda	52	57.3
United Republic of Tanzania	79	79.0
Zambia	44	75.0
Zimbabwe	69	74.0
NORTH AFRICA	37	42.4
Algeria	35	49.6
Egypt	44	44.5
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	-	66.9
Morocco	28	33.1
Sudan	32	32.0
Tunisia	38	54.2

Table XVII contd.

	LITERACY RATE	
	t1 1980	t2 1985
WEST AFRICA	27	37.6
Benin	28	25.9
Burkina Faso	5	13.2
Cape Verde	37	47.4
Cote d'Ivoire	35	42.7
Gambia	15	25.1
Ghana	-	53.2
Guinea	20	28.3
Guinea-Bissau	28	31.4
Liberia	25	35.0
Mali	10	16.6
Mauritania	17	17.0
Niger	10	13.9
Nigeria	34	42.4
Senegal	10	28.1
Sierra Leone	15	29.3
Togo	18	40.7
ALL ECA MEMBERS STATES	40	47.1
Oil exporters	38	45.5
Non-oil exporters	41	48.0
Least developed countries	39	44.4
Others	43	52.2

Source: Combination of data from Table 16 of ECA, Survey of Social and Economic Conditions in Africa, 1983-1984 and data from Table 16 of Survey 1984-1985.

TABLE XVIII

CRUDE ACTIVITY RATES - 1965 AND 1983

	Percentage of total population		Average annual growth rate
	1965	1983	1965-1983
CENTRAL AFRICA	53.5	51.8	2.2
Angola	55.0	53.0	2.6
Burundi	54.0	53.0	1.8
Cameroon	52.0	50.0	2.0
Central African Republic	57.0	55.0	2.0
Chad	56.0	56.0	2.1
Congo	55.0	51.0	2.2
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	..
Gabon	..	..	..
Rwanda	52.0	51.0	3.3
Sao Tome and Principe	..	..	..
Zaire	53.0	51.0	2.0
EASTERN AFRICA	52.5	51.9	3.0
Botswana	..	..	..
Comoros	..	..	..
Djibouti	..	..	..
Ethiopia	53.0	57.0	3.1
Kenya	47.0	46.0	3.5
Lesotho	54.0	54.0	2.6
Madagascar	54.0	50.0	2.1
Malawi	51.0	49.0	2.7
Mauritius	..	..	..
Mozambique	56.0	52.0	2.9
Seychelles	..	..	..
Somalia	49.0	53.0	4.7
Swaziland	..	..	..
Uganda	53.0	50.0	3.0
United Republic of Tanzania	53.0	50.0	2.9
Zambia	52.0	49.0	2.7
Zimbabwe	51.0	46.0	3.0
NORTH AFRICA	52.3	63.8	2.7
Algeria	59.0	50.0	3.0
Egypt	55.0	57.0	2.5
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	53.0	52.0	4.1
Morocco	51.0	52.0	2.7
Sudan	53.0	52.0	2.0
Tunisia	50.0	56.0	2.8
WEST AFRICA	52.6	50.6	2.9
Benin	53.0	50.0	2.6
Burkina Faso	54.0	52.0	1.6
Cape Verde	..	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	55.0	53.0	4.3
Gambia	..	..	..

Table XVIII contd.

	Percentage of total population		Average annual growth rate
	1965	1983	1965-1983
Ghana	52.0	49.0	2.4
Guinea	55.0	53.0	2.0
Guinea-Bissau	..	..	..
Liberia	51.0	53.0	3.5
Mali	51.0	50.0	4.1
Mauritania	52.0	53.0	2.7
Niger	51.0	51.0	2.7
Nigeria	52.0	50.0	3.1
Senegal	54.0	53.0	3.1
Sierra Leone	54.0	55.0	1.7
Togo	53.0	50.0	2.5
ALL ECA MEMBER STATES	52.7	51.8	2.7
Oil exporters	52.7	52.1	2.8
Non-oil exporters	52.8	51.6	2.7
Least developed countries	53.1	52.8	2.3
Others	52.4	50.2	2.7

Source: ECA secretariat calculations based on World Bank, World Development Report 1985 (New York, Oxford University Press, 1985).

TABLE XIX

SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE LABOUR FORCE, 1960-AND 1980

(PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL LABOUR FORCE)

	Agriculture		Industry		Services	
	1960	1980	1960	1980	1960	1980
CENTRAL AFRICA	85	78	7	10	8	12
Angola	69	59	12	16	19	26
Burundi	90	34	3	5	7	11
Cameroon	87	83	5	7	8	10
Central African Republic	94	38	2	4	4	8
Chad	95	35	2	7	3	8
Congo	52	35	17	26	31	40
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gabon	85	79	7	10	5	11
Rwanda	95	91	1	2	4	7
Sao Tome and Principe	..	..	..	..	..	..
Zaire	83	75	9	13	5	12
EASTERN AFRICA	88	79	5	8	5	13
Botswana	92	83	3	5	5	12
Comoros	..	..	..	..	..	..
Djibouti	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	88	80	5	7	7	13
Kenya	86	78	5	10	9	12
Lesotho	73	37	2	4	5	9
Madagascar	93	87	2	4	5	9
Malawi	92	36	3	5	5	9
Mauritius	40	30	26	24	35	46
Mozambique	81	67	8	17	11	16
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..
Somalia	88	82	4	8	8	10
Swaziland	54	52	4	9	42	39
Uganda	89	83	4	6	7	11
United Republic of Tanzania	89	53	4	6	7	11
Zambia	79	68	7	11	14	21
Zimbabwe	69	60	11	15	20	25
NORTH AFRICA	66	50	11	23	23	27
Algeria	67	25	12	25	21	50
Egypt	53	50	12	29	30	21
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	53	20	17	27	30	53
Morocco	62	53	14	21	24	26
Sudan	86	72	6	10	8	18
Tunisia	56	35	18	32	26	33
WEST AFRICA	76	62	8	8	16	22
Benin	64	46				
Burkina Faso		32	5	13	1	6
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	89	79	2	4	8	17
Gambia	35	79	7	10	8	11

Table XIX contd.

	Agriculture		Industry		Services	
	1960	1980	1960	1980	1960	1980
Ghana	64	53	14	20	22	27
Guinea	88	52	6	11	6	7
Guinea-Bissau	..	..	..	..	..	..
Liberia	89	70	10	14	10	16
Mali	94	73	3	12	3	16
Mauritania	91	69	3	8	6	23
Niger	95	91	1	3	4	6
Nigeria	71	54	10	19	19	27
Senegal	84	77	5	10	11	12
Sierra Leone	78	65	12	19	10	16
Togo	58	67	8	15	12	18
ALL ECA MEMBER STATES	70	69	8	14	13	19
Oil exporters	..	52	..	21	..	27
Non-oil exporters	70	75	10	19	19	16
Least developed countries	83	79	5	5	-	13
Others	79	70	9	13	16	17

Sources: Labour Force Estimates and

TABLE XX THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE FEMALE LABOUR FORCE BY INDUSTRY - MID TO END OF THE 1970s

Country	Year	Agr. etc.	Extracting Industry	Manufacturing	Utilities	Construction	Commerce	Transport	Banking Insurance	Social services	Activities
Botswana	1976	9.2	5.5	17.3	2.8	3.2	23.2	3.3	21.0	27.2	-
	1978	10.5	5.0	13.6	1.7	2.5	36.4	4.5	25.2	29.7	-
Egypt	1971	3.3	1.4	6.5	3.5	1.7	6.9	2.8	11.4	18.0	38.2
	1979	1.1	5.3	5.1	6.2	1.4	6.2	3.8	10.7	19.0	33.7
Kenya	1977	17.1	2.9	10.0	4.1	4.5	11.0	6.4	16.5	22.6	-
	1979	17.9	3.8	8.3	5.1	3.6	3.5	6.9	15.4	25.1	-
Liberia	1971	18.8	16.5	6.4	8.9	9.8	15.2	5.9	2.5	9.1	7.0
	1979	20.0	12.1	13.5	37.5	27.0	35.3	17.5	31.1	10.8	45.3
Mauritius	1971	27.9	29.1	26.5	4.1	1.3	15.2	1.8	20.8	14.1	0.6
	1980	27.6	50.3	55.6	3.1	1.0	21.8	5.8	26.1	19.6	0.5
Swaziland	1971	30.1	2.4	7.0	3.3	0.6	30.3	6.6	32.1	35.6	-
	1979	25.2	1.5	23.8	5.9	5.7	39.7	7.1	29.9	29.1	-
Tunisia	1975	13.6	1.5	52.4	4.3	0.9	6.1	5.0	24.7	22.2	11.6
	1980	19.8	4.4	49.6	12.2	0.9	10.7	5.8	22.0	20.0	14.6
Zimbabwe	1979	25.6	1.8	7.7	3.0	1.2	17.6	7.1	41.3	18.3	-
	1980	26.0	1.5	7.3	3.0	1.2	17.2	6.4	40.0	17.3	-
Malawi	1971	11.7	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	5.1	1.1	21.4	12.1	-
	1979	13.5	0.0	5.1	5.7	0.6	10.7	4.3	9.5	16.2	

Source: Seyoum G. Selassie, "Patterns of Women's Employment in Africa" in ILO/JASPA, The Challenge of Employment and Basic Needs in Africa, (Oxford University Press Nairobi 1986), Table 5, p. 103